

CHIN AND BENNE'S CHANGE STRATEGIES IN
RELATIONSHIP TO PROGRAMS AND POLICIES IN STUDENT AFFAIRS

By

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Abstract of Dissertation Presented to the Graduate School
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By

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Chairman: Dr. James Wattenbarger
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The purpose of this study was to determine if the change strategies of Chin and Benne, as described in The Planning of Change, were seen by three types of administrators at public four-year colleges and universities as being equally important as processes involved in causing change to occur in the area of student affairs. The three strategies of change were (a) empirical-rational, (b) normative-re-educative, and (c) power-coercive.

To obtain appropriate information to complete this study, the researcher developed an instrument, based on the literature, that contained 10 statements regarding change in student affairs within the past 20 years. Following each statement were three responses that reflected the change strategies. The survey was mailed to three groups of administrators: chief academic, administrative, and student

affairs officers. There were 162 administrators in each of the three groups and 486 colleges and universities included in the study.

The one-way and two-way analyses of variance were used to analyze the data. If significant differences existed, a follow-up procedure, the Bonferroni procedure for identifying specific differences, was used.

The results of the study provided support for the theory of Chin and Benne. In change in student affairs, the three strategies are perceived to cause change to occur. However, there were differences among the strategies in terms of perceived importance and frequency of usage.

In overall use of strategies, chief student affairs officers perceived the empirical-rational category of change as more important than did academic or administrative officers. There were also differences among the respondents in their perceptions of a dominant strategy. By importance, both the empirical-rational and the normative-re-educative strategies were rated as more important than the power-coercive strategies. The normative-re-educative strategy was used most frequently.

There were also differences in the 10 areas of change. In the area of drug abuse, the power-coercive strategy was perceived as dominant by importance and the empirical-rational was used most frequently. The empirical-rational was dominant by importance and frequency in the area of increased use of technology.

CHAPTER I DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY

Introduction

The profession of student affairs has experienced significant change during the past 20 years. The profession has had to respond to increasingly complex university environments and to more diverse student needs. These changes occurred as a response to several factors including legislation, court decisions, increased emphasis on access, cultural pluralism, and current societal and political issues. The consequences of these changes for student affairs professionals have been new populations of students, and new programs and services designed to meet their needs. As a result, there is more diversification in the student affairs profession than ever before.

This expanded and diversified role for student affairs professionals has been evolving since the beginning of higher education in the United States. Early colleges, primarily religious in nature, had the trustees, faculty, and presidents performing student affairs functions (Fenske, 1980). Through legislation such as the Morrill Land Grant Act in 1862, education became more pluralistic, more secular in its role, and focused more on technology. Enrollments expanded, knowledge became more specialized into academic disciplines, and the role of the presidents, faculty, and trustees changed. There was a need to assign traditional responsibility for student life to others.

According to Rudolph (1962), in pre-Civil War days the college or university typically had an administrative staff of a part-time librarian, a treasurer, and a president. The development of the administration usually progressed as follows:

first a secretary of the faculty, then a registrar, and then in succession a vice-president, a dean, a dean of women, a chief business officer, an assistant dean, a dean of men, a director of admissions and in time a corps of administrative assistants to the president. (Rudolph, 1962, pp. 434-435)

Not only did administrative staff increase but the number of individuals working in student affairs increased as well. Harvard University is credited with hiring in 1870 the first college dean whose responsibilities were to include enrollment of students, discipline, and teaching (Mueller, 1961). At Johns Hopkins, in 1889, the first head of faculty advisors was assigned and by 1900 almost all sizeable institutions had deans of men (Fenske, 1980).

The focus of many institutions broadened during the early 1900s as well. In addition to the strong thrust of scholarship, attention was beginning to be given to the personal development of the student. Institutions responded to the belief that there was an obligation to assist students to succeed once they had enrolled at their college or university (Mueller, 1961).

In addition to the changing focus of colleges and universities, students themselves were organizing and developing their own groups. Between the Civil War and World War I, organizations such as literary societies, intercollegiate sports clubs, drama groups, and Greek letter organizations were developed. This was, in part, a reaction to the increased scholarly emphasis of the institutions and the students' need for both social and intellectual pursuits (Fenske, 1980).

After World War I the personnel movement, which was used heavily in the United States army with mental testing and counseling, had an impact on higher education. Tests were employed by colleges to improve their selection process and to decrease the number of student academic failures. The profession also expanded to include placement services and student health services in response to the expectation of employers, parents, and the students themselves. The focus of student affairs maintained this basic structure during the Depression and until after World War II.

After World War II, the student affairs profession began its most dramatic expansion. The Servicemen's Readjustment Act resulted in a huge need for an increase in academic, financial, and personal advising on most campuses (Fenske, 1980). In 1947, the President's Commission of Higher Education recommended the removal of ethnic, racial, and financial barriers to higher education. By 1958, the profession had 20 different functions as listed by the American Council of Education's Committee of the Administration of Student Personnel Work (Fenske, 1980), reflecting the increased diversity of students and the rising expectations of the public for services.

Change in student affairs continued to accelerate during the years 1960-1980. Brodzinski (1980) reported the results of a study in which chief student affairs officers identified the amount of responsibility they had for 20 functional areas of responsibility. The results were compared with a 1962-1963 study by Ayers, Tripp, and Russel (1966). The study indicated a decrease in only one area. There was a 30% increase in three areas; a 20% increase in an additional three areas;

and the chief student affairs officers identified 55 different functional areas under the "other" category. The responsibility of the student affairs officers have changed and increased greatly since the early 1960s (Ayers et al., 1966; Brodzinski, 1980). The phenomenon of change was predicted to continue and the forecast included "continual change, constant ferment, and uneasy confusion" (Brown, 1972, p. 13).

These changes occurred at a time when fiscal resources were quite limited. Funding for student affairs was adequate between the Korean War and the Vietnam War (Lawrence, 1980) and student affairs professionals enjoyed a relatively healthy environment in which to pursue the goal of assisting students. During the latter part of the 1960s and the early 1970s the situation changed. Student unrest regarding the civil rights movement and the Vietnam War, high unemployment, inflation, and a loss of public support resulted in more conservative and stringent funding of higher education (Lawrence, 1980).

This financial conservatism demanded accountability and stimulated creativity in the use of resources. Student affairs, when compared with other institutional functions for support, was sometimes viewed as an "extra." With limited resources, institutions were most likely to support traditional teaching and research programs, and services supporting the personal development of students often were assigned lower priority.

The most important change affecting professionals in student affairs recently has been the emphasis upon meeting the needs of

specially identified groups of students. There has been an increasing recognition that institutions must adapt their services, staffing, facilities, and policies to students with special needs. Some of these groups include disabled, minority, adult, and women students. Each of these groups has gained increased attention, and student affairs staff have provided programs and services to them.

The administration of student affairs is a profession that has been characterized by change. Professionals in the field have had to adapt to a variety of changes in students, in the colleges themselves, and in the expectations that society has for higher education.

Commenting on change in student affairs, Blaesser and Crookston (1983) stated the following:

Changes in college student personnel programs are typically brought about in diverse ways--through administrative fiat, staff turnovers, financial ups and downs, recommendation from faculty and student committees, marshalling of data from local, regional, and national research, or pressure groups from students, faculty, administration, alumni, and the surrounding community. (p. 193)

An understanding of how change occurs is critical at a time when resources are limited and accountability is stressed. To continue to meet the increasing demands of constant change and to maintain institutional support student affairs professionals must become familiar with how change occurs. Planned change is a systematic methodology used to effect a difference in a specific setting. Intentional change strategies need to be employed by student affairs officers (Blaesser, 1978). "An intermittent and uncoordinated series of planned change efforts . . . and practice will not suffice" (Blaesser, 1978, p. 112).

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to determine if the three change strategies of Chin and Benne (1976) were seen by three types of administrators at public four-year institutions of higher education as being equally important as processes involved in causing change to occur in the area of student affairs within the past 20 years. The three types of administrators surveyed for the study were the chief academic, administrative, and student affairs officers. This time span of 20 years was selected because of documented significant change during that time. Evidence of this was substantiated by the comparisons of the 1962-1963 study by Ayers et al. (1966) and the Brodzinski (1980) study.

The three change strategies of Chin and Benne (1976) served as the theoretical base for the study. Their three categories of change strategies are (a) empirical-rational, (b) normative-re-educative, and (c) power-coercive. Their change strategies combine numerous approaches to change into three main groups, each of which is found in higher education.

The study examined the use of these change strategies in 10 areas of responsibility of chief student affairs officers. These areas included enrollment of minority students, opportunities for women students, legal/liability concerns, use of technology, alcohol use policies, drug abuse, enrollment of disabled students, living and learning programs, opportunities for adult students, and counseling services. These are 10 areas that have experienced change during the

past 20 years. These changes have been substantiated by activity on the campuses, attention in the professional literature, and rankings by leaders in the student affairs profession. A detailed description of each area is presented in Chapter II.

Hypotheses

This study was designed to test the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1. There are no significant differences among administrators in the three institutional positions in their perceptions of the importance of change.

Hypothesis 2. There are no significant differences among administrators in the three institutional positions regarding their perceptions of the importance of the empirical-rational change strategy in causing change to occur.

Hypothesis 3. There are no significant differences among administrators in the three institutional positions regarding their perceptions of the importance of the normative-re-educative change strategy in causing change to occur.

Hypothesis 4. There are no significant differences among administrators in the three institutional positions regarding their perception of the importance of the power-coercive change strategy in causing change to occur.

Hypothesis 5. There is no significant interaction between the type of administrator and the importance of the three change strategies in explaining the overall change perceived by administrators.

Hypothesis 6. There are no significant differences among the three change strategies regarding their perceived importance in causing change to occur.

Hypothesis 7. There are no significant differences among the three change strategies regarding their perceived importance in causing change to occur in the 10 areas of change.

For all hypotheses tested, the level for statistical significance was set at .05. If the probability value was less than .05 the null hypothesis was rejected.

Justification of the Study

Student affairs literature indicates the need for practitioners to be able to apply theory to current situations to work effectively with students and institutions (Carpenter, Miller, & Winston, Jr., 1980; Kuh, 1981). Included in this need to understand and apply theory is the need to be knowledgeable about planned change strategies and their relationship to institutions (Blaesser, 1978; Kuh, 1981; Smith, 1982; Strange, 1981).

In addition, an understanding of the change strategies that have been involved in student affairs programs is important to prepare for the future. If student affairs professionals are to assume a leadership role in their institutions, it is essential for them to understand how change occurs regarding the important programs that affect them.

Recent Areas of Change in Student Affairs

The recent areas of change were determined by two methods. Through discussion with experts in student affairs and a review of the literature, 22 areas of change were identified. A list of 20

nationally recognized professionals in student affairs was developed. A mailing was sent that asked them to rank, by their significance or importance, the 22 areas of change. A category of "other" was included to allow for the addition of other areas of change. The 19 responses were compiled and the 10 areas of change with the highest rankings were used for this study. The 10 areas, listed in priority order, are enrollment of minority students, opportunities for women students, legal/liability concerns, use of technology, alcohol use policies, drug abuse, enrollment of disabled students, living and learning programs, opportunities for adult students, and counseling services.

Enrollment of minority students. The number of minority students attending institutions of higher education has increased in the past 20 years. The number of entering freshmen who were minority students nearly doubled between the mid-1960s and the 1970s. The increase reflects mainly black, Hispanic, and American Indian students (Astin, 1984). Between 1968 and 1982 the percentage of minority students increased from 9.5% to 17% of total college and university enrollment (U.S. Bureau of Census, 1983).

During the 1960s there was a dramatic increase in black students attending predominantly white institutions. In 1950, predominantly black institutions enrolled 100,000 students, or approximately 90% of all black students (Fleming, 1984). By 1960, 134,000 black students between the ages of 18 and 24 years were enrolled in colleges. This figure increased to 416,000 students in 1970 and by 1982 there were 767,000 black students enrolled in colleges and universities (U.S. Bureau of Census, 1983).

Opportunities for women students. Women students began their study of higher education in women's colleges in the early 1800s. By 1901 there were 119 women's colleges in the United States. The first coeducational institution was Oberlin College in Ohio which admitted the first woman student in 1833. By 1900, 71.6% of the colleges and universities were coeducational (Brubacher & Rudy, 1958).

Mueller (1961) stated that in the early 1960s the male to female ratio on large campuses was approximately three to two. By the late 1970s the shift changed to a slight majority of women at most campuses (Astin, 1984). The total enrollment of women in higher education increased from 1,326,000 in 1960 to 6,397,000 in 1981 (U.S. Bureau of Census, 1983). The projections indicate a continued increase in the enrollment of women students in higher education (Jacobs, 1979).

Legal/liability concerns. The impact of legal problems has been evident in numerous areas of student affairs. These areas include use of alcohol (Janosik, 1983; Zirkel & Bargerstock, 1980); withdrawal of students for psychiatric reasons (Zirkel & Bargerstock, 1980); counseling and health services, student discipline, student publications, the supervision of student activities (Barr, 1983); and hazing (Buchanan, 1983). These legal concerns warranted the Council for the Advancement of Standards for Student Affairs/Services Programs to include in their General Standards a statement that encouraged the education of student affairs professionals in legal and liability issues and adoption of risk management standards (Buchanan, 1983).

"Almost every decision or action of the student affairs administration today has legal implications" (Barr, 1983, p. 3). The attention to legal and liability issues increased in student affairs in recent years.

Use of technology. In addition to new groups of students served by institutions of higher education the use of technology has also had an impact according to Johnson and Riesenbergs (1979) and they cited the following examples:

1. Computers--used in areas such as research on student trends, learning skills centers, financial aid, housing, registration, career planning, and instruction.
2. Multi-media productions--used in recruitment, career planning, and orientation programs.
3. Videotape equipment--used in training programs (e.g., interviews, assertiveness), providing admissions information, and orientation programs.
4. Biofeedback--used in behavior modification counseling services.

Johnson and Riesenbergs also projected an increased use of technology in the future. Cited as possible uses of technology are uses of home terminals for access to information such as financial aid, registration, and academic programs; increased use of home systems for students with disabilities; and the use in the residence halls of video and closed circuit systems. Jacobs (1979) stated that by the year 2000 a significant portion of the population will have jobs that rely on technology.

Alcohol use policies. The abuse of alcohol has been a concern on campuses since colonial days when most colleges and universities considered drinking liquor unacceptable. Recent concerns have resulted in more attention to the subject.

During 1974-1975 the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse identified alcohol abuse problems on the 62 campuses that were visited during their study (Snodgrass & Wright, 1983). Since that time the College Alcohol Survey (Anderson & Gadaletto, 1985) showed an increased concern regarding the abuse of alcohol on college campuses. The survey indicated that between 1979 and 1985 institutions having an individual work with educational programs on alcohol abuse rose from 14% to 48% of those responding.

Drug abuse. While the concern for the abuse of alcohol dates back to colonial times, its use has become prevalent on college campuses. A report by Boost Alcohol Consciousness Concerning the Health of University Students (BACCHUS) (1985) indicated that most reports find that about 90% of today's college students drink occasionally. More than half of the males, age 18 to 24, are heavy drinkers, which means that they consume more than 15 drinks a week, or on a daily basis drink more than two drinks.

In addition to the focus on alcohol use, the use of other drugs has been a concern on college campuses. These drugs included substances such as marijuana, Lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD), and mescaline during the 1960s. In addition, other drugs such as barbiturates, amphetamines, and heroin became present on campuses (Arnstein, 1973). According to Snodgrass and Wright (1983) a study by

Fishburn, Abelson, and Cisin (1979) indicated that the percent of college students who had used marijuana increased from 59% to 68% between 1977 and 1979. In addition, between 1975 and 1981 the use of cocaine by students increased from 6% to 12% and it was the fourth preferred illegal drug used by students (Snodgrass & Wright, 1983).

The use of multiple drugs is also a concern on college campuses. Polydrug use "refers to the simultaneous or sequential use of two or more mood altering drugs from different pharmacological categories to achieve different effects (Snodgrass & Wright, 1983, p. 26).

Snodgrass and Wright (1983) cited a study by Hochhauser (1976) which indicated a combination of drugs was used by 42% of 365 undergraduate students.

Enrollment of disabled students. Prior to the 1970s students with disabilities seldom attended public institutions of higher education, except institutions specifically designed for their need, such as Gallaudet College in Washington, D.C.. While the number of disabled students attending college is difficult to determine (Perry, 1981), the enrollment of these students has increased. The Postsecondary Education Planning Commission (1986) cites Astin, Green, Korn, and Maier as indicating that the percentages of students with reported disabilities in the freshman class increased from 2.7% in 1978 to 7.3% in 1984. Previously, about 30% of the population of nondisabled persons attended college compared with only about 9% of totally disabled individuals (McBee, 1982). In 1986, a national poll by Lou Harris & Associates estimated that 14% of the population of disabled individuals had completed four years of college or more (Funk, 1986).

A 1976 survey by the United States Office of Education indicated that only one-fifth of colleges and universities had programs and services for the disabled student (Bailey, 1979). By the late 1970s and early 1980s these programs expanded and most colleges and universities offered some assistance to this population of students. Perry (1981) indicated that factors such as the education of handicapped children, improved medical services, awareness of the public regarding disabilities, and progress in rehabilitative engineering served as catalysts for this change in enrollment.

The needs of these students are unique because of the types and severities of the disabilities. As a result, the profession of student affairs has given increased attention to meeting the academic, personal, and vocational needs of disabled students.

Living and learning programs. Prior to the 1960s residence halls typically served as a place for students to live while on campus. The environment was mainly custodial and provided a location for students to eat, sleep, and study while learning occurred in the traditional classroom.

During the 1960s attention was given to the intellectual as well as the physical well-being of the student in the residence hall. The concept of living and learning in the residence halls can be defined as an opportunity for students in the residence halls to integrate their academic programs with the environment in which they live (Adams, 1974). Approaches to the concept have varied, depending on facilities, faculty commitment, and fiscal resources. Examples of elements of a living and learning program include such things as lab

units, traditional classes held in residence halls, and offering alternative courses not offered in the regular curriculum (Adams, 1974). In addition they can include residential colleges where faculty and college deans live with the students and special floors offering different options for study (Adams, 1974; Schneider, 1977).

Riker (1965) predicted that this concept would be common within the next 20 years. By 1974 Adams referred to the concept as "one of the most profound changes currently taking place on college and community campuses" (p. 87).

Opportunities for adult students. There has been an increase in the number of adult students attending colleges and universities in recent years (Astin, 1984; Chickering, 1973; Jacobs, 1979). In the early 1960s there were nine million adult students who were furthering their education in various programs. This figure increased to 25 million by 1970 (Chickering, 1973). According to Jacobs (1979), "persons over twenty-five enrolled at three times the rate of those under twenty-five, and the growth of enrollment of those over twenty-five was twice that of overall growth" (p. 30). The U.S. Bureau of Census (1983) reported that in 1972 students 25 years and older comprised 23.8% of the college enrollment and by 1982 that number increased to 35.6%.

The large number of adult students is projected to continue to increase. By the year 2000, the largest age group of people in the United States will be those in the 30-to 40-year-old range (Cross, 1979). As a result, additional services and programs are being designed to meet the needs of these students.

Counseling services. The primary services of the university counseling center prior to the 1970s focused on advising, personal, and vocational concerns (Warman, 1961). The majority of services were provided on a one-to-one basis. During the early 1970s both the remedial and developmental functions of university counseling centers were encouraged in the guidelines of the International Association of Counseling Services (IACS) (Kirk, Free, Johnson, Michel, Redfield, Roston, & Warman, 1971). In addition, the scope of responsibility of the counseling centers expanded to include areas such as research, training, consultation, serving on university committees, and program development (Weissberg, 1984).

The role and scope of the university counseling centers expanded during the 1970s. Weissberg (1984), citing Carni, Gelweik, Lamb, McKinley, Schoenberg, Simono, Smith, Wireson, & Wrenn (1981), stated that the guidelines published by the IACS

stressed the importance of enhancing the university environment so as to maximize growth and development; becoming a valuable component of the entire student affairs effort; and developing extensive networks and linkages with various academic, student service, institutional, and community agencies. (p. 41)

He also indicated that the guidelines included such things as outreach programs, structured groups, workshops, and services for nontraditional groups of students such as minority and older students. These changes represent a more diversified, specialized, and comprehensive university counseling center.

Theoretical Framework

Change Strategies

Chin and Benne (1976) described planned change as those activities in which at least one of the individuals in the process uses obvious,

specific, and designed attempts to produce change. Chin and Benne grouped into three categories the strategies commonly used for change. While there are similarities among the strategies, the differences are significant. The strategies are not mutually exclusive and elements of one may be found in another. Independently they each represent a major type of change strategy that can be found in higher education. The three categories for change strategies are (a) empirical-rational, (b) normative-re-educative, and (c) power-coercive. The following provides a summary of these strategies.

The empirical-rational strategy assumes that people are rational and they will pursue their rational self-interest when it is known to them. In this process, a person or organization proposes a change that will be of benefit to and consistent with the self-interest of the individual or group on which the change will have an impact. It is assumed that change will be accepted if it is shown to be justified and of benefit because the individual or organization is assumed to be rational and able to be motivated by self-interest.

The normative-re-educative change strategies include rationality and intelligence. However, the motivation for the change is the support by individuals of the sociocultural norms which are the values and attitudes that affect commitments. Change involves an alteration of the orientation to current normative patterns and replaces them with new orientations. The change in commitment involves change in "attitudes, values, skills, and significant relationships, not just changes in knowledge, information, or intellectual rationales for

action and practice" (Chin & Benne, 1976, p. 23). Processes such as conflict management, problem solving groups, and management by objectives are often used in student affairs.

Power-coercive change strategies are based on the use of power as a source of change. The source of power can be legitimate, authoritative and/or coercive. Sources of motivation for change therefore can include such things as positional, economic, legal, political, moral, and administrative power. In this process, those with more power use it to obtain the desired outcome from those with less power. In education, this process of change can be found in sources such as legislative mandates, judicial decisions, and administrative orders (Blaesser, 1978).

Assumptions

In this study the following assumptions were made:

1. Respondents responded accurately and honestly to the instrument.
2. Respondents were knowledgeable about changes that occurred at their institutions.
3. The changes in student affairs, as identified from a review of the literature and rankings from nationally recognized student affairs personnel, occurred at most institutions.

Delimitations

1. The study was limited to the perceptions of chief student affairs, academic affairs, and administrative affairs officers at public four-year institutions.
2. The change strategies studied were limited to the categories formulated by Chin and Benne.

3. Areas of recent change were limited to 10 identified areas of student affairs. The responses cannot be generalized to other areas of change.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined to assist the reader:

Planned change. Change in which at least one of the individuals involved in the process uses obvious, specific, and designed attempts to produce change (Chin & Benne, 1976).

Student affairs. An administrative subdivision in colleges and universities whose responsibilities include programs and services that are designed to assist the personal growth of students and to complement their academic development.

Chief student affairs officer. The college or university administrator whose primary responsibility is to oversee the operation of programs, services, and staff in the division of student affairs.

Chief academic affairs officer. The college or university administrator whose primary responsibility is to oversee the operation of programs, services, and staff in the division of academic affairs.

Chief administrative affairs officer. The college or university administrator whose primary responsibility is to oversee the operation of programs, services, and staff in the division of administrative affairs.

Overview of Research Methodology

The major purpose of this study, as stated earlier, was to determine if the change strategies of Chin and Benne (1976) were seen by three types of administrators at public four-year colleges and

universities as being equally important as processes involved in causing change to occur in the area of student affairs. The three types of administrators surveyed for the study were the chief academic, administrative, and student affairs officers.

Selection of the Population and Sample

The population for this study consisted of the chief student affairs, academic affairs, and administrative affairs officers at all public four-year postsecondary institutions. Institutions that focus on medical education were eliminated from the study because of their uniqueness. The total number of appropriate public four-year institutions was 486 according to the Education Directory, College and Universities, (Broyles & Fernandez, 1984).

The 486 institutions were listed in alphabetical order. Three groups were selected from the population using a regular interval sample. By alphabetical order, institutions were assigned a number one, two, or three. This determined which chief officer at each institution received the survey. The three groups, in order, were the chief academic officers, the chief administrative officers, and the chief student affairs officers.

Instrumentation

Twenty-two programs or policies that have been affected by change in student affairs within the past 20 years were identified through a review of the literature. A letter explaining the study (Appendix A) and a survey (Appendix B), listing these 22 areas of change and a section to identify additional areas, was sent to a national

representative group of 20 recognized leaders in student affairs. These individuals were asked to rank the 22 areas according to their significance and importance and the 10 highest ranking areas of change were included in the study.

An instrument, titled "A Study of Planned Change Strategies in Higher Education" (Appendix G), was designed by the writer. Each area of change was presented and described. Respondents were asked to consider the change and how they perceived it to have taken place. Following each description were three responses and there were three different sets of these responses. These responses reflected the change strategies of Chin and Benne and were validated as such by a panel of experts in the field of planned change as indicated in Appendix E. Respondents were asked to rate the responses in terms of the importance they believed each process had in causing the change to occur.

Data Collection

The survey was mailed to three groups of administrators. The three groups, in order, were the chief academic affairs officers, the chief administrative affairs officers, and the chief student affairs officers. There were 162 institutions in each of the three groups and 486 public four-year colleges and universities included in the study. A letter from Dr. James Wattenbarger, Director of the Institute of Higher Education at the University of Florida, was included with the survey (see Appendixes H and I). The letter described the purpose of the study and the need to support the research. To facilitate the return of the survey, it was stamped and self-addressed. The

respondents needed only to complete, staple, and return the instrument. For the purpose of a second mailing, the survey was numerically coded. A second mailing of the survey, which was also stamped, and self-addressed for return, was sent approximately two weeks later.

Analysis of the Data

To analyze the responses, one-way and two-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were used. The data were analyzed to determine difference in the perceptions of the importance of change, the overall use of the three strategies, the importance of a change strategy, and the relationship between the type of administrator and the importance of the three strategies in explaining overall change perceived by the administrators.

Overview of the Study

The introduction, purpose, justification for the study, theoretical framework, assumptions, limitations, and definitions have been presented in Chapter I. Chapter II presents relevant research and literature regarding recent changes in the field of student affairs and further information on Chin and Benne's strategies for change. Chapter III describes the methodology and design used in the study. Chapter IV presents the results and analysis of the data. Chapter V includes a discussion of the results, conclusions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER II REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter will provide an overview of the literature as it relates to Chin and Benne's theory on change and student affairs. The three areas reviewed will be Chin and Benne's theory of change, the catalysts and management of change in student affairs, and recent areas of change in the student affairs profession.

Chin and Benne's Theory of Change

Chin and Benne (1976) indicated that planned changes are those changes "in which attempts to bring about change are conscious, deliberate, and intended, at least on the part of one or more agents related to the change attempt" (p. 22). According to them knowledge is present when change occurs and the use of knowledge is intended.

There are two main types of knowledge that are included in Chin and Benne's theory. The first is knowledge about nonhuman environments where activity occurs. This includes "thing technology" which is knowledge that is used to control some aspect of the environment. They cited an example of the knowledge of electronics which influences educational activities (Chin and Benne, 1976). As thing technology is introduced people become involved as new practices are introduced. An agent of change must then be concerned with the reactions of people that are involved with and affected by the

change. Behavioral knowledge of people's reaction to change is a basis for people technology.

Behavioral knowledge may be the initial reason for change. For example, in education an awareness of different learning styles or effects of diverse cultural backgrounds may suggest various methods of instruction or changes in the composition of staff that deliver the information. These changes, based on behavioral knowledge, must also be done with an awareness of people technology. People technology deals "with the resistances, anxieties, threats to morale, conflicts, disrupted interpersonal communication, and so on which prospective changes in patterns of practice evoke in the people affected by the change" (Chin & Benne, 1976, p. 22). Chin and Benne stated that whether the initial focus of change is on thing technology or people technology the basis of the change must be on the "behavioral knowledge of change and must utilize people technologies based on such knowledge" (p. 23).

Strategies for Change

Chin and Benne grouped change strategies into three main categories. Their categories of change have some similarities but the differences are significant. The three groups of change strategies are (a) empirical-rational, (b) normative-re-educative, and (c) power-coercive.

Empirical-rational strategies. The category of empirical-rational strategies is based on the premise that reason is a basis of action. People, because they are rational, will change when it is evident that

it is in their self-interest to do so. The evidence is based on facts or factual information.

The development of this grouping of strategies dates back to the time of The Enlightenment and Classical Liberalism. During these times it was believed that ignorance and superstition were hindrances to the progress of society. Through the widespread knowledge of factual information change and progress would occur. The main thrust of education was scientific investigation and research.

The nineteenth century was the time when educational opportunities were extended to many with the belief that through the dissemination of knowledge and reason people would move from ignorance to intellectualism. Chin and Benne cited Horace Mann and Thomas Jefferson as change agents of this time. Jefferson was noted as an "early advocate of research and of education as agencies of human progress" (Chin & Benne, 1976, p. 24). The opportunities associated with the common school concept of Horace Mann also encouraged progress.

The evolution of education moved to the belief that research and knowledge should be linked with the practitioners. The concept of the land-grant universities, along with the agricultural extension systems, are examples of this movement. Chin and Benne (1976) stated that this approach was focused on thing technology. Even with activities of the Research and Development Centers that were federally funded and based at many universities, sufficient attention was not given to how to get the acceptance and adoption of the innovation by the people who would be affected by it at the local setting.

Normative-re-educative strategies. In the normative-re-educative strategy of change theory, the hypothesis about the motivation for change is different. The main belief in these strategies for change is that people are also motivated internally. Socially the activity is collective. Individually, values, habits, and beliefs motivate people. At the cultural level, this motivation, along with the rational information, causes changes in the values and relationships of the units involved.

Inherent in the normative-re-educative change strategies is a change agent. The role of the agent is to intervene and incorporate change into the workings of the system to be changed, whether an institution or an individual. The approach used by the change agents is based on a deliberate theory of change.

Chin and Benne (1976) cited five elements that exist in these strategies.

1. The client is involved in seeking the improvements through change. This client involvement is emphasized.
2. In addition to the use of technical empirical information as possible assistance to the client, the values, attitudes, norms, and internal and external relationships to the system are included as possible areas of re-evaluation.
3. There is an interaction between the client and the change agent during the change process. This relationship includes reciprocal cooperation in the diagnosis and solutions of problems.
4. It is important that unintentional obstacles to change be evaluated openly and revised accordingly.

5. Both the client and the change agent use their experiences and knowledge of the behavioral sciences in future changes and problem areas.

According to Chin and Benne (1976), the organizing of the National Training Laboratories in 1947 was an important stage in the development of the normative-re-educative approach to planned change. It was at these laboratories that participants would test their own interpersonal theories in a group setting. The effects of the laboratories were significant and resulted in two main methods of working with social systems: problem-solving and personal growth.

Problem-solving approaches deal with the sociotechnical problems and usually involve steps to identify problems, evaluate current situations, obtain feedback, and employ internal agents to monitor the organizational development. The personal growth approach focuses on the individual as the key element in the organization. Through individual or group work the people's needs are met and, as result, the organization benefits. Through personal re-education of norms change is believed to occur.

It is important to note that conflict management also evolved in this category of change strategies. The basic premise of this approach is the belief that through the resolution and management of conflict changes in the individual and the organization will evolve.

Power-coercive strategies. Power-coercive strategies differ from the empirical-rational and the normative-re-educative approaches to change in the way power is obtained and used and the components of the

power. According to Chin and Benne the power-coercive processes typically have as their basis political and economic sanctions of power.

In these strategies the change agents, aware of a desired goal, attempt to use political and economic power to create the change. Those who have the legitimate power may or may not be aware of the needs of those under their influence. Groups or individuals outside the power may seek to influence change by creating a challenge to the existing power structure.

According to Chin and Benne, there are three main approaches to power-coercive strategies that are employed to maintain or create power: (a) nonviolent strategies, (b) political power, and (c) influence of those who hold the power. Nonviolent strategies include such things as peaceful demonstration, sit-ins, and boycotts. The power here can be moral and/or economic sanction.

Political power is evident in legislation, administrative decisions, and judicial decisions. To be effective as a change catalyst, Chin and Benne indicate that these actions must be accomplished with education regarding the desired practice.

The third approach, influence of those in power, acknowledges the power held by certain individuals, organizations, or groups. Through the influence of these power holders change can occur.

Related Literature and Research

Blaesser (1978) cited the change strategies of Benne and Chin as a taxonomy that influences and effects change in social systems such as colleges and universities. The empirical-rational approach, through

the principles of research and the conveying of knowledge, is a favored approach used by academic personnel. Educational policies are affected by legislative and judicial decisions, therefore power-coercive strategies are apparent. In addition, conflict management, group problem-solving, and personal growth are all employed to generate creativity necessary for managing change. This is evidence of the presence of the normative-re-educative change approach. According to Blaesser (1978) aspects of the three change strategies are found in colleges and universities.

A study by Goldstein (1982) was designed to determine which tactics were the most influential in introducing a new curriculum of special education. The author used tactics for innovation and placed them into a tactic factor based on Chin and Benne's three change strategies. This framework allowed the author to identify the innovator's use of tactics in each of these three categories.

It was found that users of empirical-rational tactics used communication as a major way to move the innovation into the system. Obtaining information was also important to power-coercive tactic users but with high power-coercive users there was no evidence of how the information was used once it was obtained. No evidence was found that supported the use of normative-re-educative tactics and advocacy activities. According to Goldstein (1982) the identification of the tactics use factors adds empirical support for the theoretical framework of Chin and Benne.

Change and Student Affairs

Institutions of higher education have been influenced by change (Miller & Prince, 1977; Tilley, 1973) and the area of student affairs has been part of the change (Borland, 1980; Brodzinski, 1977; Kinnick & Bollheimer, 1984; Paul & Hoover, 1980; Shaffer, 1980).

Catalysts for Change in Student Affairs

Change in education and specifically in student affairs, in the past, has been a reaction to various events (Blaesser & Crookston, 1983). As Miller and Prince (1977) observed, past changes were mainly results of pressure placed on student affairs or when students advocated a need for change. The main source of institutional change was internal motivation (Kinnick & Bollheimer, 1984).

Recent history indicates that change has occurred as a result of numerous catalysts, not all internal. Cited as some of the motivators for change are changes in enrollment figures, fiscal maintenance, changes in federal financial assistance available to students, and the enrollment of non-traditional students (Kinnick & Bollheimer, 1984). Tilley (1973) also included changes in student's expectation from colleges and changes in values and life styles. A shift has occurred from internal to external sources of influences for change in student affairs (Foster, 1983; Kinnick & Bollheimer, 1984).

Stamatakis (1980) also described the change.

The external pressures of Civil Rights and free speech movements, Vietnam war protests, and student demands for relevance, a role in decision-making, and the termination of loco parentis during the sixties and early seventies, wrought some fundamental and substantive changes in the profession's self-perceptions, traditions, priorities, preparation emphasis, and modus operandi. (p. 287)

Past approaches to change and the new catalysts for change warranted attention by professionals in student affairs. Change must be anticipated (American College Personnel Association, 1983; Brodzinski, 1977; Miller & Prince, 1977). In addition to the anticipation of change, an understanding of and planning for change is necessary (Miller & Prince, 1977).

Management of Change in Student Affairs

Literature in the field of student affairs includes many suggestions for dealing with change. Authors cite ingredients and processes necessary for change.

Smith (1982) stated that the profession has moved from the early priorities of discipline, counseling and health of students, which was reactive and pragmatic, to a broader goal that includes the total education and development and growth of students. The movement includes the entire institution and models for change must include both the institutional goals and missions and the academic and intellectual development of the students. Also necessary is involvement from many groups within the institution. Trust must be present in addition to support, participation, and commitment if change is to occur. In summary, Smith (1982) stressed the need to understand what inhibits and what maintains change, the institutional goals and missions, and the process of change initiated from humanistic perspective.

Kuh (1981) challenged traditional thoughts regarding organizational change and stressed the importance of knowledge regarding environmental factors and their impact on relationships.

Three traditional views that Kuh challenged are that (a) mutually agreed upon goals are the basis upon which units and institutions are organized, (b) rational decision-making is the basis of action, and (c) communication among all levels is clear and understood by all levels or is tightly coupled. According to Kuh, specific and rational goals are not directly related to what actually occurs and personal goals, not unit or organizational goals, are the prime target for action. With regard to decision-making, other elements such as political and economic factors are involved along with rational, systematic decisions. Communication and mutual understanding of issues is not clear and student affairs are not highly interdependent as a unit or as part of a large organization.

Kuh (1981) cited Berman's (1979) approaches to change implementation. These two approaches are programmed and adaptive implementation.

In the programmed approach there are clear goals and objectives. The process is also rational and orderly. The four requirements for the rational programmed implementation are "(1) a tightly coupled unit or institution; (2) clear consensually validated goals; (3) relatively well-known technologies (e.g., well accepted and understood student development theories and programming strategies); (4) a supportive environment (administrative support, commitment of adequate resources etc.)" (Kuh, 1981, p. 33).

The adaptive approach is one in which the innovation is worked into the existing structure. This approach to change implementation

is used to work a new policy or program into an existing institution. This is best when "(1) 'major' changes in policy or procedures are required; (2) when the goals are vague or contradictory; (3) when the technology used is unclear; (4) and when 'loose coupling' best describes the institutional setting in which the innovation is to be implemented" (Kuh, 1981, p. 33).

Plato (1977) incorporated many similar constructs of common elements found in literature regarding change. She listed four main assumptions regarding change which include the following: (a) the rational decision-making model is used; (b) the "collegial model" of administration is used in higher education; (c) current and future availability of fiscal resources for student affairs are not examined; and (d) there is an unconscious shift from the individual to the organization. Given these four common assumptions, Plato (1977) recommended five strategies for the student personnel profession. She included (a) awareness of fiscal resources; (b) viewing student development as policy; (c) involvement of students in implementation; (d) expressing the goals of the profession within the political model of administration; and (e) including educational politics and planning, decision-making theory, organizational theory, and policy studies in the training of professionals in student development.

Strange (1981) indicated that the definition of the goals of the profession of student affairs has been a significant recent accomplishment. To actually implement the desired goals identified in the definition of the profession it is important that there be an

understanding of the institutional dynamics that affect innovation. Strange (1981) cited the work of Hage and Aiken (1974) who identified four steps involved in program implementation and they also described seven organizational variables that affect the rate and success of program innovation.

Program innovation begins with evaluation, when the organization is determined to be in need of change to become more effective or efficient. The next step is initiation when it is decided that a specific change is to be made, such as a new activity or program. Next in the process is implementation, when the desired change occurs and, fourth, routinization is the acceptance of the new activity or program. The effect of the change depends on seven variables within an organization. These are formalization, centralization, production, efficiency, complexity, stratification, and job satisfaction. These variables affect the rate and success of innovation.

Strange (1981) suggested that the theoretical framework of Hage and Aiken is a viable one in which student affairs professionals can systematically approach change within an organization. He also indicated that external factors (e.g., governing boards, decreasing fiscal resources, accreditation agencies), must be viewed for their impact on change.

Terry and Miller (1978) cited four main change strategies: the Havelock Linkage Model; Social Interaction Model; Research, Development, and Diffusion Model; and the Problem-Solving Model that they discussed as appropriate to change in higher education. The Problem-Solving Model is useful to organizations where change occurs

usually as the result of the identification of a problem that needs resolution. The Problem-Solving Model has three main steps: planning, implementation, and evaluation.

Terry and Miller (1978) believed that the creativity for change is limited in higher education because of the bureaucratic structure. This structure fosters a condition of control and predictability and, as a result, stifles the opportunities for change.

According to Priest, Alphenaar, and Boer (1980) change management is obtained through long-range planning. This approach also provides student personnel administrators with a method to address the future and be better prepared to make decisions. There are five constructs in the long-range planning framework that they suggested.

1. A description of the units' role or mission within the institution.
2. Identification of goals, within the units' mission, to be achieved during the planning period.
3. Description of current status of the unit and progress toward the existing goals.
4. Delineation of points to be touched en route to goals and objectives.
5. And attachment of resource requirements for all components of the plan. (p. 4)

An understanding of current conditions by catalysts or innovators is necessary before effective planned change can occur according to Martin (1969). He suggested that student personnel can be an important force in leading other components of higher education in innovation. An understanding of current conditions and methods to work with them prepare student personnel administrators for the role of innovators. There are five propositions that Martin (1969) cited as descriptions of current conditions.

1. Because of existing inadequacies, change, ongoing and extreme, is needed. In addition, possibilities of the future require change.
2. As well as a need for change, an acceptance that change will occur is warranted.
3. Faculty inhibit change.
4. Students are more often inhibitors for change than innovators.
5. Because change can result in real shifts in values, priorities, and funding, administrators usually move from a supportive to a reluctant stance with actual change.

To understand better how change occurs and how organizations function, Kuh (1981) recommended three priorities for student affairs.

1. Support, financial and moral, must be made possible to individuals who provide information regarding student affairs relationships to existing organization development theories, possible use of these theories in other components of the university, and interaction between organizations and individual development.
2. New information regarding organizational development must be made available to the profession.
3. Identification of institutional obstacles to the development, positive and negative, of students, staff, and faculty is necessary.

Tilley (1973) cited several areas that need attention for coping with change:

improving student service administration, developing staff, multiplying helping resources among faculty and peers, and recognizing the need for differentiated organizational systems to serve institutional needs on the one hand and the human and social needs of students, faculty, and staff on the other. (p. 116)

Change in student personnel during the next 25 years will likely be significant (Harvey, 1983). As Blaesser and Crookston (1983) stated "it is likely that most student personnel workers would agree that more could be done about the nature and direction of 'change' in the college student personnel program" (p. 193).

Recent Areas of Change in Student Affairs

The following areas of change were ranked as the most significant 10 areas of change within student affairs within the past 20 years. The areas are listed in their order of importance according to the rankings given by nationally recognized experts in the field of student affairs.

Enrollment of Minority Students

During the past 20 years the enrollment of minority students increased significantly. Brubacher and Rudy (1958) traced the history of the enrollment of this population of students. According to them it was Ralph Turner who, during the time of World War II, articulated the equal access philosophy to education. He indicated that the basic principle was "the free access of all individuals to the full content of the advancing body of knowledge" (Brubacher & Rudy, 1958, p. 375). In the late 1940s several states passed fair education practices acts that mandated equal access. In addition, between 1936 and 1952 U.S. Supreme Court decisions were made that prohibited the exclusion of black students from public colleges and universities (Brubacher & Rudy, 1958). By the 1950s most public institutions were open to minority students.

According to Astin (1984) the minority representation in freshmen enrollments nearly doubled between the mid-1960s and the 1970s. This increase included Hispanics and American Indians while the largest increase was among black students. In the 1950s approximately 90% of all black college students were enrolled at predominantly black institutions (Fleming, 1984). The enrollment of black students in colleges increased from 134,000 in 1960 to 767,000 in 1982 (U.S. Census Bureau, 1983). The total college enrollment percentages of minority students increased from 9.5% to 17% between 1968 and 1982 according to the U.S. Census Bureau (1983). Astin (1984) indicated that minorities are enrolled most frequently in the social sciences and education at the undergraduate level and the least representation is found in engineering and sciences.

This change in enrollment has affected the area of student affairs. The role of promoting positive race relations, and the support of the special needs of minority students have often been the responsibility of the student affairs professional. Hayes (1985) stressed the need for student affairs professionals to be acutely aware of the campus environment provided for minority students.

Opportunities for Women Students

Access to higher education opportunities for women began with colleges specifically for women. The Wesleyan Female College in Macon, Georgia was the first institution to award degrees to women, and by 1901 there were 119 women's colleges in the United States (Brubacher & Rudy, 1958). The first coeducational institution,

Oberlin College, had its first female graduate in 1841. By 1900 the number of coeducational institutions represented 71.6% of institutions of higher education (Brubacher & Rudy, 1958).

The access to educational institutions, according to Astin (1976), can be traced to the historic 1884 meeting in Seneca Falls, New York, where women articulated the need for equal access to a number of areas including education. The evolution of access included the women's right to vote in 1920. In addition, developments in the 1960s and 1970s increased opportunities for women. Some of these events include (a) the establishment of the Commission of Women in 1963 by President John Kennedy; (b) the addition of sex to the Title VII of the Civil Rights Act in the early 1960s; (c) the addition, in 1968, of sex to the classes protected from illegal discrimination by federal contractors; (d) the inclusion of institutions of higher education in the Equal Pay Act in 1963; (e) the prohibition of discrimination in admissions to medical and health professions by the Public Health Act of 1971; (f) the prohibition of discrimination on the basis of sex in federally assisted educational programs by the Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972, and (g) the finding of the U. S. Congress that educational institutions were frequently inequitable to women as stated in Section 408 of the Educational Amendments of 1974 (Astin, 1976).

The change in enrollment of women in higher education is evidenced by the figures. In 1960 women comprised almost 35% of the total enrollment in higher education and by 1982 the percent increased to 52.1% (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1983). Several authors discussed

the enrollment of re-entry women as a significant impact on these figures (Copas & Dwinell, 1983; Cross, 1973, Wheaton & Robinson, 1983). This group of women 25 years and older increased from 8.4% of the total enrollment in 1970 to 19.7% in 1982 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1983).

Legal/Liability Concerns

Student affairs professionals have become increasingly concerned about legal rights and responsibilities (Barr, 1983; Hammond, 1977, 1979; Liethen, 1978; Parr & Buchanan, 1979; Zirkel & Bargerstock, 1980). The causes for these concerns are numerous and include federal legislation and the legal age of adulthood change to 18 years of age (Parr & Buchanan, 1979), and the removal of in loco parentis (Barr, 1983; Parr & Buchanan, 1979). The Vietnam War and the civil rights movement of the 1960s were also catalysts for increased litigation according to Liethen (1978).

The areas of increased liability and litigation can be found in areas such as "student discipline, the student press, administrative standards, liability of administration in supervision of activities, and the provision of health and counseling services" (Barr, 1983, p. 3). The use of alcohol can also be a legal concern on campuses based on case law, local and state laws, and alcohol beverage control requirements (Janosik, 1983). In addition to the concern regarding the consumption of alcohol, a study of Lehigh University Graduate School of Education, done by the Pennsylvania Association of Student Personnel Administrators, found that the legal question of institutional withdrawal of students for psychiatric reasons was also a legal concern (Zirkel & Bargerstock, 1980).

Hazing has also received legal attention. According to Buchanan (1983) hazing accounted for the deaths of 28 college students between 1971-1981. The majority of these resulted in legal cases and were settled out of court and eight resulted in litigation against the institution.

This increased litigation and awareness of legal responsibilities in the area of student affairs resulted in the Council for the Advancement of Standards for Student Affairs/Services Programs (CAS) to develop guidelines. The Risk Management Standard of CAS included the following recommendations:

Staff in all functional areas should be current and well-versed in those obligations and limitations imposed on the operation of the institution, and particularly their functional area, by federal, state, and local statutory, regulatory, and common law, and institutional policy, and should utilize appropriate risk management practices and policies to limit exposure of the institution, its officers, employees, and agents. (Buchanan, 1985, P. 13)

Use of Technology

The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (1972) referred to the use of technology as the fourth revolution and the indicated that "Higher Education (and education in general) now faces the first great technological revolution in five centuries in the potential impact of the new electronics" (p. 1). The first three revolutions were (a) the shift from the use of real objects to symbols, (b) the shift from family educators to specialized teachers, and (c) the use of the movable printing type (Mayhew, 1977).

The use of technology expanded in the late 1950s and by the end of the 1960s it was used as a primary vehicle for the delivery on services in education (Mayhew, 1977). By the late 1970s the

importance of an understanding of the application of technology in student development was stressed as a necessary skill (Penn, 1976). By 1983 the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators and the American College Personnel Association included technology as a main theme at their national conferences (Johnson, 1983).

Computer technology is now used in almost every area in student affairs (Sampson, 1982). To provide direct services to students it can be found in such things as study skills, career guidance and personal counseling (Sampson, 1982) and 24-hour telephone access to information such as health center information (Johnson, 1983).

As a management tool technology is also very evident in student affairs. It is employed in areas such as student activities, housing, financial aid, academic advising, admissions, registration, placement, and new student orientation (Sampson, 1982). Because of the prevalence of technology in student affairs, Sampson (1982) recommended that the chief student affairs officer (a) ensure legal and ethical use of computers, (b) provide for regular evaluation of current systems, (c) provide staff development in the area of technology, and (d) provide for long-range planning for future technological applications.

This change in student affairs will continue and student affairs professionals have a need to understand the fourth revolution (Penn, 1976; Sampson Jr., 1982).

Alcohol Use Policies

During the past 20 years increased attention has been focused on the use of alcohol by college students. Historically, the use of

alcohol by students has been questioned by colleges. In colonial times restrictions were placed on the consumption of liquor and some schools banned the drinking of alcohol.

Recent studies about the drinking behavior of students caused institutions of higher education, and specifically, student affairs professionals to increase programs and initiate policies regarding the use of alcohol by students. In 1979 a study by Anderson and Gadaletto indicated that 69% of the institutions surveyed were sponsoring programs in alcohol education and by 1985 the number increased to 88%. In addition to educational programs, alcohol use policies were promulgated. Zirkel and Bargerstock (1980) recommended that a realistic policy be established with the following guidelines suggested when the use of alcohol is permitted and rules are established:

(b) the clear and continued notice of such rules, for example by tasteful place cards at the serving table of university receptions; (c) the provision of proper supervision at such events, including the monitoring of state liquor control board identification cards; (d) the non-availability of alcoholic beverages at as many events as possible; (e) the strict disciplinary enforcement of violations of such rules; and (f) the purchase of comprehensive insurance coverage. (p. 254)

Others also recommended policies regarding the use of alcohol (Buchanan III, 1983; McBrien, 1980). In addition to institutional policies, state laws affecting education have been adopted. Janosik (1983) indicated that 20 states have recently changed the legal age for using alcohol and 14 additional states were considering such changes. The educational law of New York in 1981 was amended to include language for the prohibition of certain alcohol related

activities. Activities prohibited included the forced consumption of alcohol or other drugs and recommended that colleges developed clear guidelines for events at which alcohol was available.

Drug Abuse

Concern for the abuse of drugs has been a relatively recent development on college campuses. Prior to the 1960s the main concern regarding substance abuse on campuses was the consumption of alcohol. By the mid-1960s the attention was more toward the use of hallucinogens (LSD, mescaline) and marijuana and drugs such as heroin, amphetamines, and barbituates also were used by college students (Arnstein, 1973). By 1981 cocaine was the fourth most preferred illegal drug and was used by 12% of students (Snodgrass & Wright, 1983).

The abuse of alcohol is the most prominent drug problem on campuses. The Boost Alcohol Consciousness Concerning the Health of University Students (BACCHUS) (1985) indicated that most studies find that approximately 90% of college students drink occasionally and more than half of the male college students between the ages of 18-24 are heavy drinkers. For that report, students who consumed more than two drinks daily or more than 15 drinks a week were classified as heavy drinkers.

According to Packwood (1977) marijuana was used by 23% of college students with 4% of these students classified as heavy users. A 1979 report by Fishburn, Abelson, and Cisin (cited by Snodgrass & Wright, 1983) found that between 1977-1979 the percent of students using marijuana increased from 59% to 68%. Findings by Snodgrass and Wright

(1983) indicated that both male and female students reported using marijuana daily more often than they used alcohol on a daily basis. The study found that the most popular drugs were, in order, alcohol, marijuana, amphetamines, and cocaine. In the month preceding their study, respondents indicated that 15% of the males and 12% of the females used cocaine, 37% of the males and 21% of the females had used amphetamines, and about 88% of the respondents had used alcohol.

Recent attention has also been given to the use of multiple drugs by college students. Polydrug use "refers to the simultaneous or sequential use of two or more mood altering drugs from different pharmacological categories to achieve different effects (Snodgrass & Wright. 1983, p. 26). Citing Hochhauser, (1976) Snodgrass and Wright (1983) stated that responses from 365 undergraduates found that "42 percent of those surveyed used combinations of mood altering drugs. Of those polydrug users, 84 percent said they combined alcohol and marijuana while 30 percent indicated they used one of these drugs with amphetamines, barbiturates, or hallucinogens" (p. 28).

As evidenced by the research, the abuse of drugs has been a recent and significant change on college campuses. Programs and services to provide for education and coping mechanisms for students abusing drugs have often been assigned to the student affairs professionals.

Enrollment of Disabled Students

According to Kiell, (1968) a study by Tucker (1964) indicated that of 951 colleges and universities with enrollments of 1,000 or more students, counselors to assist disabled students were provided at 121 institutions. Visits from other agencies such as vocational

rehabilitation were made at an additional 340 institutions. Students with disabilities were present on many of the campuses studied. The same study indicated that the enrollment at more than half of the colleges included one or more blind students and students using wheelchairs were enrolled at approximately one-third of the institutions.

By the mid-1970s a study sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education reported that services for disabled students were available at one-fifth of the colleges and universities (Bailey, 1979). This increase in services reflected an increase also in the enrollment of disabled students. Colleges and universities have experienced a significant increase in this population of students (McBee, 1982; Penn & Dudley, 1980; Perry, 1981; Warnath & Dunnington, 1981). The number of disabled students is difficult to cite as the reporting of these students is not often done (Perry, 1981). The Postsecondary Education Planning Commission (1986) cited Astin, Green, Korn, and Maier as indicating that the enrollment of students with disabilities in the freshmen class increased from 2.7% in 1978 to 7.3% in 1984. In addition, only about 9% of totally disabled individuals attended colleges previously compared with about 30% of the population of nondisabled individuals (McBee, 1982). In 1986 a national poll by Lou Harris and Associates estimated that 14% of the population of disabled individuals had completed four or more years of college (Funk, 1986).

Changes in the enrollment of disabled students is attributed to legislation and changes in social attitudes (McBee, 1982; Penn & Dudley, 1980; Perry, 1981). The first legislation that affected

disabled individuals was the Architectural Barriers Act of 1968 (Penn & Dudley, 1980). The act required accessability in new facilities built with the use of federal monies. In addition, the Rehabilitative Act of 1973, as amended, required programmatic and architectural accessability to institutions receiving federal funds. Perry (1981) indicated that factors such as the education of handicapped children, improved medical services, awareness of the public regarding disabilities, and progress in rehabilitative engineering were catalysts for this change in enrollment.

Living and Learning Programs

Riker (1965) described the living and learning concept in student housing as one in which the total learning process is involved. He indicated that environment, both physical and social, influences the individual behavior and if the environment is improved the intellectual development of the individual is enhanced. These integrations of academics into the living environment "provide students with an opportunity to take full advantage of the residence environment without divorcing themselves from the academic programs and departments of the university" (Adams, 1974, p. 89). While the concept is considered a recent change in colleges and universities (Adams, 1974), Harvard and Yale used the Cambridge and Oxford models for their housing and they were the first institutions that embraced this concept (Bess, 1973).

Components of a living-learning residential program can include numerous elements. These include such things as team-teaching, textbooks and technology, advising in both personal and academic

areas, and enrichment programs (Riker, 1965). In addition, Adams (1974) identified components such as lab units, classes in the residence halls including courses not offered in the regular curriculum, different options by floor units, and a residential college where all faculty live in the residence hall. Schneider (1977) also suggested academically focused floors, residential colleges, floors with no or limited staffing, areas of living where a special theme is the focus, matching of students with environments by information cards, and the presence of a library.

According to Riker (1965) there are three essential components to a living-learning center:

- Programs, developed as a framework for student action and reaction in learning;
- Staff, selected and organized to sustain the programs and guide the day-to-day activities of the housing unit; and
- Physical Facilities, designed to meet the requirements of students, programs, and staffs. (p. 6)

Considerations for establishing a living and learning program are early involvement of students in the planning, participation by students in the actual teaching, planning for the education programs, use of resource personnel as consultants, use of technology in educational programs, use of a variety of teaching methods, and involvement of the student organizations (Stark, 1964). Stark (1964) made the following recommendations for personnel:

- Make maximum and early usage and involvement of students through the residence hall government; call upon faculty and community experts for suggestions and involvement; make full use of a wide variety of types of programs; involve students in the implementation of the programs; make use of different kinds of teaching methods; and overlap with the already existing residence hall organizations and programs. (p. 20)

The impact of the living and learning concept has been significant (Adams, 1974) and is attributed to the personalization of colleges and universities (Brown, 1972). This concept will likely continue in colleges and universities (Brown, 1972; Riker, 1965).

Opportunities for Adult Students

Older students, those over the age of 22, have increased in recent years (Astin, 1984; Brodzinski, 1977; Chickering, 1973; Cross, 1973; Fingerman & Dyar, 1983; Greenwood, 1980; Jacobs, 1979;).

Older students represented 22% of the college enrollment in 1970 (Brodzinski, 1977). In 1972, according to the U.S. Bureau of Census (1983) 23.8% of the college enrollments were comprised of students over the age of 25. By 1975 this age group of students represented 34% of the college enrollment (Brodzinski, 1977) and by 1982 that figure increased to 35.6% of college and university enrollment (U.S. Bureau of Census, 1983).

Within the group of older students is a large subgroup of returning women students. According to Johnson, Wallace, and Sedlacek (1979) the Women's Bureau of Statistics documented this increase. Between 1960 and 1975 the number of returning women students over the age of 25 increased from 171,000 to 1,561,000.

The enrollment of adult learners is projected to continue to increase. The largest age group in the United States in the year 2000 will be those in the 30-40 year old range (Cross, 1979). In addition, by the year 2000, approximately 75% of the workforce will be comprised of adults in the current workforce and about 23 million American adults are currently functionally illiterate (National Commission on

Excellence in Education, 1983). In addition to current programs, new approaches will be taken to prepare adults for employment. "These workers, and new entrants into the workforce, will need further education and retraining if they--and we as a Nation--are to thrive and prosper" (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983, p. 13).

Counseling Services

In 1910, at Princeton University, Stewart Paton was credited as being the first college psychiatrist (Arnstein, 1973). Following this appointment more attention was gradually given to the counseling needs of students. It was Edmond G. Williamson who, in the late 1930s, articulated the role of counseling in the profession of student affairs (Betz, 1980).

In 1952 the membership roster for the Counseling Center Administrators' Conference included 50-60 members and by 1968 the numbers increased to over 175 (Oetting, Ivey, & Weigel, 1970). In 1964 approximately 60% of colleges and universities responding to a survey had a guidance or counseling center (Oetting et al., 1970).

The primary focus of these centers was on personal and vocational counseling, and advisement of students on a one-to-one basis prior to the 1970s (Weissberg, 1984). As the numbers of counseling centers increased the role also expanded. The emphasis included preventive and developmental as well as remedial attention (Hurst, 1980). In 1971 the International Association of Counseling Services (IACS) included not only the remedial but the developmental needs of students as services of college counseling centers (Kirk, Johnson, Redfield, Free, Michel, Rosten, & Warman, 1971).

According to Weissberg (1984) the IACS "suggested functions and services included individual and group counseling and psychotherapy, consultation, learning skills assistance, university program development, committee involvement, training supervision, assesment of student needs, and research" (p. 40). He indicated that in 1981 these guidelines were revised to include services to special populations of students, outreach, and special programs. Weissberg (1984) cited Garni, Gelwick, Lamb, McKinley, Shoenberg, Simono, Smith, Wiersen, and Wrenn, (1981), as indicating that the guidelines also:

stressed the importance of enhancing the university environment so as to maximize growth and development; becoming a valuable component of the entire student affairs effort; and developing extensive networks and linkages with various academic, student service, institutional, and community agencies. (p. 41)

This expansion is evidenced by a study done by Aiken (1982). Respondents identified the areas that they believed to be important in the present and those that would be of concern in the 1980s. Changes between the current and future needs were also noted:

an increased emphasis of computer and media approaches to career search; licensure of counselors providing services; tightened budgets causing a restricted range of services; increased student consumerism; the need for centers to be more involved in research and program evaluation; the need for counselors to learn skills in consultation and program planning; and the need for closer ties between centers and the academic faculty. (p. 20)

The development of the counseling centers at colleges and universities has resulted in a dramatic expansion of services. Both Aiken (1982) and Weissberg (1984) indicated that the recent past has resulted in a more comprehensive and diversified role for counseling centers.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented an overview of the literature related to Chin and Benne's theory of change, the catalysts and management of change in student affairs, and the recent areas of change in the student affairs profession.

The next chapter describes the methodology and design developed and used to facilitate the study.

CHAPTER III RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Research Objectives

The purpose of this study was to determine if the change strategies of Chin and Benne (1976) were seen by three types of administrators at public four-year institutions of higher education as being equally important as processes involved in causing change to occur in the area of student affairs within the past 20 years.

The following null hypotheses were developed and were tested in this study:

Hypothesis 1. There are no significant differences among administrators in the three institutional positions in their perceptions of the importance of change.

Hypothesis 2. There are no significant differences among administrators in the three institutional positions regarding their perceptions of the importance of the empirical-rational change strategy in causing change to occur.

Hypothesis 3. There are no significant differences among administrators in the three institutional positions regarding their perceptions of the importance of the normative-re-educative change strategy in causing change to occur.

Hypothesis 4. There are no significant differences among administrators in the three institutional positions regarding their perceptions of the importance of the power-coercive change strategy in causing change to occur.

Hypothesis 5. There is no significant interaction between the type of administrator and the importance of the three change strategies in explaining the overall change perceived by administrators.

Hypothesis 6. There are no significant differences among the three change strategies regarding their perceived importance in causing change to occur.

Hypothesis 7. There are no significant differences among the three change strategies regarding their perceived importance in causing change to occur in the 10 areas of change.

For all hypotheses tested, the level for statistical significance was set at .05. If the probability value was less than .05 the null hypothesis was rejected.

Research Population and Sample

The research population for this study included the chief academic, administrative, and student affairs officers at all public four-year institutions of higher education. This population consisted of 486 institutions according to the Educational Directory, Colleges and Universities (Broyles & Fernandez, 1984).

The 486 institutions were listed in alphabetical order. Three groups were selected from the population by using a regular interval sample. By alphabetical order, institutions were assigned a number of

one, two, or three. This determined which chief officers at each institution would receive the survey. The three groups, in order, were the chief academic affairs officers, the chief administrative affairs officers, and the chief student affairs officers. There were a total of 162 institutions in each of the three groups.

The three groups of administrators were chosen for a variety of reasons. As change occurs, the chief officers in these areas of responsibility are the individuals most likely to be aware of the change and/or be involved in actions that affect change. In addition, the areas represented, student life, academic, and administrative issues are often the three key components of the university that deal with change. When major changes occurs, these three areas of responsibility are often involved and the chief officers must interact with one another.

Development of the Instrument

Change Statements

The change statements were developed by a review of the literature which documented change within the past 20 years in the field of student affairs. In addition, the selected 10 areas of change noted were ranked as such by a total of 19 nationally recognized leaders in student affairs. These individuals were sent a list of 22 areas of change (Appendix B) and asked to rank them in terms of their significance. The 10 areas of change are, in order of ranking, enrollment of minority students, opportunities for women students, legal/liability concerns, use of technology, alcohol use policies, drug abuse, enrollment of disabled students, living and learning

programs, opportunities for adult students, and counseling services.

The 10 areas were used in the change statements.

The 10 change statements were as follows:

1. Between 1965 and 1985 the enrollment of students with disabilities increased significantly at public colleges and universities. In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following responses in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.
2. The percentage of minority students increased from 9.5% to 17% of the total college and university enrollment between 1968 and 1982. In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following responses in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.
3. In 1960 women represented almost 35% of the enrollment at colleges and universities and, according to the U.S. Bureau of Census (1983), the figure is now 52.1%. In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following responses in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.
4. The living and learning concept in residence halls, which evolved during the past 20 years, is a program which provides for the physical as well as the social and academic development of students. The impact of this concept has been significant (Adams, 1974). In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following responses in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.
5. The use of technology has expanded significantly in the past 20 years. It is found in direct access services for students such as 24 hour telephone access to services and programs in career and personal counseling and study skills. It is also prevalent as a management

tool and is used in areas such as admissions, financial aid, and academic advisement. In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following responses in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.

6. Institutions of higher education are confronted increasingly with legal/liability issues. These concerns can be found in areas such as alcohol use, hazing, campus security, student discipline, and student publications. In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following responses in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.

7. Prior to the 1960s the main concern regarding substance abuse on campuses was the consumption of alcohol. During the 1960s the use of hallucinogens, marijuana, and other drugs such as heroin, amphetamines, and barbiturates occurred. The abuse of these drugs, along with the use of cocaine and the use of multiple drugs by students, has appeared on college and university campuses. In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following responses in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.

8. Prior to the 1970s the primary focus of counseling centers was on the personal, vocational, and advisement of students on a one-to-one basis. The centers have expanded their role and now include such things as educational consultation, university committee involvement, training, services to special populations of students, and outreach. In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following items in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.

9. In 1970, older students (those over 24 years of age) represented 22% of the college enrollment. By 1982 this figure increased to 35.6% of college enrollments. In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following responses in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.

10. Colleges and universities have increased the number of educational programs and policies regarding the use of alcohol. Studies by Anderson and Gadaleta (1985) indicate that the percentage of responding institutions having programs in alcohol education increased from 69% in 1978 to 88% in 1985. In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following responses in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.

Responses to Change Statements

For the construction of the responses the researcher reviewed the literature on each of the change strategies represented. The following key words and phrases reflected the types of change strategies:

1. Empirical-rational--communication of ideas, basic research, scientific investigation and research, diffusion of knowledge, scientific management, applied research.
2. Normative-re-educative--creating conditions for innovation, creativity, personal growth, problem-solving, conflict management, use of external consultants, taskforces, values, habits, involvement of the client in the system, feelings.
3. Power-coercive--use of mandates, orders, legislative and judicial decisions, civil disobedience, use of political institutions, influence of those in power.

Three responses for each change strategy were then developed that included the key words or phrases that reflected the three change strategies: three response items reflecting the empirical-rational, three the normative-re-educative, and three reflecting the power-coercive change strategy. From the three sets of responses one set was used for four change statements, and two sets were used for three statements each.

The first response in each set reflected the empirical-rational strategy, the second the normative-re-educative strategy, and the third represented the power-coercive change strategy. While the three sets were used, the number of the individual statements varied to assist in assuring that the responses were read for each change statement.

1. The change was based on research, increased knowledge and information, and the dissemination of the information.

2. Changes in commitments and/or changes in values, habits, and attitudes were the basis for change.

3. The use of political, economic or moral sanctions, civil disobedience, and/or judicial or legislative decisions were the basis for the change.

1. The use of research, an increase in information and knowledge, and the communication of the information were the basis for this change.

2. Changes in values, habits, attitudes, and/or commitments were the basis for this change.

3. The change occurred as a result of activities such as legislative or judicial decisions, civil disobedience, and/or political, moral, or economic sanctions.

1. The communication of increased information and knowledge and/or the use of research were the basis for this change.

2. The change occurred as a result of changes in the values, attitudes, habits, and/or commitments.

3. The use of moral, political or economic sanctions, legislative or judicial decisions, and/or civil disobedience were the basis for this change.

Validation of the Response Items

To determine that the response items accurately reflected the theory of Chin and Benne, the researcher submitted the responses to a panel of five expert judges. These individuals were selected on the basis of their expertise and knowledge regarding change theory. Agreement among three of the five judges established a response as being valid. As indicated in Appendix F, of the four responses received, all concurred that the responses reflected the appropriate change strategy.

Each judge was selected in advance and informed about the research project and his/her role in the project. Each judge was sent a letter (Appendix C) which included a brief description of the study (Appendix D). The following directions (Appendix E) were included.

1. Read the summary of Chin and Benne's taxonomy of planned change.
2. Read the sample change strategy responses.

3. Indicate the change strategy that you believe is most accurately described by the response. Use the following key for the responses: E= empirical-rational, N= normative-re-educative, and P= power-coercive.
4. Judge each response independently and do not use the process of elimination to determine the change strategy represented.
5. Note comments and suggestions in the space provided.
6. The completed form should be returned in the enclosed, self-addressed envelope.

Pilot Study Using the Survey Instrument

Following the validation of the response items a pilot study was conducted. The instrument was completed by the three highest ranking officials in the Division of Academic Affairs, Administrative Affairs, and Student Affairs at the University of Florida. These individuals were asked to determine the length of time required to complete the instrument, to make general comments about the instrument, and to suggest changes or improvements in the instrument. Their responses were considered when the final design was developed. As a result of the pilot study, clarifications were made in the wording of two change statements and several of the responses.

Design and Printing of the Instrument

An instrument titled "A Study of Planned Change Strategies in Higher Education" was printed (see Appendix G). The printing was done with consideration for ease of reading and completion by the participants. Considerations for mailing, such as number and size of pages, were included when the format of the instrument was designed.

Administration of the Instrument

The instrument was mailed to the participants. Each of the potential 486 respondents, representing 162 chief academic, administrative, and student affairs officers at different four-year public postsecondary institutions received a survey form that included a letter indicating the purpose of the survey and endorsement, and a questionnaire. The letter outlined the purpose of the study (see Appendixes H and I). In addition, it requested that the recipient return the completed questionnaire by stapling the instrument and returning the self-addressed, stamped survey. Respondents were asked to return the questionnaire within two weeks. A follow-up mailing was sent two weeks following the initial mailout, urging participation and support of the study and there was a two week response time for the follow-up questionnaire. Confidentiality of the respondents was ensured. A letter from Dr. James Wattenbarger, Director of the Institute of Higher Education at the University of Florida, was included with the survey.

Treatment of the Data

Responses obtained on the section on institutional and personal data provided specific information regarding these areas. This demographic information was collected to obtain data that may be helpful in comparing future research and is summarized in Appendix J.

Responses to the change statements provided a measure of the perceived overall importance of change, the perceived overall importance of each strategy, differences among administrators in their perceptions, and by specific differences in the 10 areas of change.

The Statistical Analysis System (SAS) computer program was used to analyze the data. The various types of data analyzed with SAS provided the necessary functions for this study.

Survey instruments were numbered for follow-up after the initial mailing and to categorize responses appropriately. Returned, useable responses were put on data coding sheets and then on to IBM cards.

One-way and two-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were used to analyze the data. The one-way ANOVA was used to test all hypotheses except hypothesis number 5. For hypothesis 5 the dependent variable overall change and the independent variable of the three types of administrators and the three types of change strategies, was analyzed using the two-way ANOVA. All hypotheses were tested and the level for statistical significance was set at .05. If the probability value was less than .05 the null hypothesis was rejected. If the null hypothesis was rejected a follow-up procedure, the Bonferroni procedure for identifying specific differences, was used. This allowed the researcher to compare all pairs of means and determine which means were significantly different.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the design and methodology of this study. The outline consists of (a) research objective, (b) research population, (c) development of the instrument, (d) design and printing of the instrument, (e) administration of the instrument, and (f) treatment of the data. Chapter IV presents the results and the analysis of the data.

CHAPTER IV PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The purpose of this study was to determine if the change strategies of Chin and Benne (1976) were seen by three types of administrators at public four-year institutions of higher education as being equally important as processes involved in causing change to occur in the area of student affairs within the past 20 years. The three types of administrators surveyed for the study were the chief academic, administrative, and student affairs officers. In addition, the study researched the perceived importance of the overall change strategies regarding their role in the 10 areas of change. An instrument that included 10 areas of change and responses that reflected the three change strategies was used for the research. There were seven hypothesis tested in this study and each one is identified in the section regarding the analysis of the data.

Research Sample

The chief academic, administrative, and student affairs officers at public four-year institutions of higher education comprised the sample population for this study. A list of 486 institutions was compiled from the Educational Directory, Colleges and Universities (Broyles & Fernandez, 1984). The 486 institutions were listed in alphabetical order and three groups were selected from the population by using a regular interval sample. The institutions, in alphabetical

order, were assigned a number one, two, or three. The administrators included in the first group were the chief academic affairs officers, the second group were the chief administrative officers, and the third group were the chief student affairs officers at those institutions. Each group included 162 administrators.

Of the 486 administrators surveyed there were a total of 304 (62.5%) returns. Of that total, seven instruments were not completed and 10 surveys were duplicate responses, the result of the second mailing. The useable return total was 287 (59%). This number was used for analysis purposes. A breakdown of the total responses by the three types of administrators indicated that the chief academic affairs officers response number was 92 (32.1%), the chief administrative affairs officers return rate was 93 (32.4%), and the chief student affairs officers responded with 102 (35.4%) of the total returns. There were 230 male and 35 female respondents with 22 unidentified responses.

Analysis of the Data

In this section the process that was used to test the hypotheses that were stated earlier is discussed. An overview of the procedures and a section specific to each hypothesis is presented.

The instrument used, "Study of Planned Change in Higher Education" (Appendix G), included 10 statements regarding change that have occurred in higher education within the past 20 years. Each change statement was followed by three responses that reflected the three different change strategies of Chin and Benne. Each respondent was asked to rate each response in terms of its importance in causing the

identified change to occur. The respondents were asked to rate each of the responses on a scale from one (not important) to five (very important). With this scale, the closer the mean score for the strategy was to five the more important the change strategy was perceived to be, and the closer it was to one the less important it was perceived to be in causing the change to occur.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test six of the hypotheses. A two-way ANOVA was used to test hypothesis 5. These analyses allowed the researcher to compare the means of three or more groups. The procedure involved the computation of an F-value for each ANOVA along with the probability of its occurrence under the null hypothesis. The level of statistical significance was set at .05. To determine the acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis, the calculated probability was compared to the .05 level of significance. If the probability value was less than .05, the null hypothesis was rejected. If it was greater than the .05, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Several different one-way ANOVAs were used. The analysis consisted of the combined scores of all change strategies for the dependent variable of change to test for an overall importance of the change strategies. To test for differences among the three types of administrators, each of the three change strategies was tested using each of them as a dependent variable. In addition, change was the dependent variable used to test for differences for the 10 areas of change.

For all of the analyses, if the null hypothesis was rejected a follow-up procedure, the Bonferroni procedure for identifying specific differences, was used. This allowed the researcher to compare all pairs of means and determine which means were significantly different. The level of significance was set at .05. If the means, when compared, were significantly different at the .05 level it was determined that a difference existed. If more than one comparison was significant, the order of the difference was determined by the order of the group means.

Overall Importance of Change Strategies

The analysis for overall change was to determine how much of the perceived importance of the change strategies was attributed to the three different administrative positions. To test this, the dependent variable was change, a category that combined scores of all three change strategies. This procedure was used to test hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 1. There are no significant differences among administrators in the three institutional positions in their perceptions of the importance of change.

As shown in Table 4-1, the F-value for the dependent variable of change was 2.37. The probability of obtaining this F-value is .0951. Since the probability is greater than .05, the null hypothesis was not rejected. There is no statistical difference among the three types of administrators regarding their perceived importance of change.

Table 4-1

Analysis of Variance for Overall Change

Group	N	Mean	F-Value	Probability	Implications
Academic Affairs	92	3.291			
Administrative Affairs	93	3.276			
Student Affairs	102	3.405			
			2.37	.0951	non-significant

Note: Alpha = .05.

Empirical-Rational Change Strategy

The next step in the analysis was to determine if differences existed among administrators in their perceived importance of the use of the empirical-rational change strategy. This was analyzed by a one-way ANOVA using empirical-rational as the dependent variable and position as the independent variable. The analysis was designed to test hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 2. There are no significant differences among administrators in the three institutional positions regarding their perceptions of the importance of the empirical-rational change strategy in causing change to occur.

Table 4-2 provides a summary of this analysis. As shown in Table 4-2, the F-value for the independent variable of position was 4.60. The probability of obtaining this F-value is .0108. Since the probability is less than the .05 level of significance, the null hypothesis was rejected. There is a statistically significant

difference among the administrators in their perceived importance of the use of the empirical-rational change strategy. The analysis indicates that the obtained R-square was .03. Therefore, about 3% of the variation in overall change was explained by the different perceptions of the empirical-rational strategy.

Table 4-2

Analysis of Variance for Empirical-Rational Change Strategy

Group	N	Mean	F-Value	Probability	Implications
Academic Affairs	92	3.060			
Administrative Affairs	93	3.079			
Student Affairs	102	3.313			
			4.60	.0108	Significant

Note: Alpha = .05.

A follow-up procedure was used to determine where the significant differences existed. The results of the Bonferroni t test for the use of the empirical-rational change strategy are shown in Table 4-3.

The results indicated that there are no differences between the chief academic and administrative affairs officers. The chief student affairs officers differ significantly from the other administrators in their perception of the importance of the use of the empirical-rational change strategy. The student affairs officers consider it to be of more importance in causing change to occur than do the other administrators.

Table 4-3

Bonferroni t Test for Empirical-Rational Change Strategy

Groups Compared	N	Means	Implications
Academic Affairs	92	3.060	
Administrative Affairs			non-significant
Student Affairs			significant
Administrative Affairs	93	3.079	
Academic Affairs			non-significant
Student Affairs			significant
Student Affairs Affairs	102	3.313	
Academic Affairs			significant
Administrative Affairs			significant

Note: Alpha = .05.

Normative-Re-Educative Change Strategy

The test to determine if there were significant differences among the three types of administrators and their perceived importance of the use of the normative-re-educative change strategy a one-way ANOVA was used with normative-re-educative change strategy as the dependent variable and position as the independent variable. This was done to test hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 3. There are no significant differences among administrators in the three institutional positions regarding their perceptions of the importance of the normative-re-educative change strategy in causing change to occur.

The results of the analysis of the normative-re-educative change strategy are noted in Table 4-4. An F-value of .10 was calculated and the probability of obtaining this value was .9009. Because the

probability was greater than the alpha level of .05 the hypothesis was not rejected. This indicates that there are no significant differences among the administrators regarding their perceptions of the importance of the use of the normative-re-educative change strategy.

Table 4-4

Analysis of Variance for Normative-Re-Educative Change Strategy

Group	N	Mean	F-Value	Probability	Implication
Academic Affairs	92	3.913			
Administrative Affairs	93	3.906			
Student Affairs	102	3.941			
			.10	.9009	non-significant

Note: Alpha = .05.

Power-Coercive Change Strategy

To determine whether there were differences among the types of administrators and their perceptions of the importance of the use of the power-coercive change strategy an ANOVA was done using power-coercive as the dependent variable and position as the independent variable. This was done to test hypothesis 4.

Hypothesis 4. There are no significant differences among administrators in their perceptions of the importance of the power-coercive change strategy in causing change to occur.

A significant difference does not exist among the administrators regarding their perceived importance of the use of the power-coercive change strategies as shown in Table 4-5. The computed F-value is .91 with a probability of .4054. Because the probability is greater than .05 the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 4-5

Analysis of Variance for Power-Coercive Change Strategy

Group	N	Mean	F-value	Probability	Implication
Academic Affairs	92	2.900			
Administrative Affairs	93	2.844			
Student Affairs	103	2.960			
			.91	.4054	non-significant

Note: Alpha = .05.

Dominant Change Strategies

A major aspect of this research was to determine if the administrators in the sample perceived an overall dominant change strategy. Also investigated was the possibility of a dominant strategy in the 10 areas of recent change in student affairs. For the purpose of this study, dominance refers to the level of importance attributed to the strategy. The prevalent strategy refers to the strategy which was viewed by the greatest number of administrators as the one most often used in causing change to occur.

If a respondent rated each strategy as equally important the response was not used in the analysis for a dominant change strategy. These data, however, are included for information purposes and are noted as responses where no dominant strategy was identified. The useable total reflects the number of responses where differences existed among the responses in the rating of the importance of the three strategies.

Overall change by change strategy and administrative position. To determine if there was significant interaction between administrative type and change strategies in determining overall change perceived by administrators, a two-way ANOVA was performed using overall change as the dependent variable. The interaction tests to determine if different administrative types with different dominant change strategies view the level of importance of overall change the same way. The three types of administrators and three change strategies were the independent variables. This was done to test hypothesis 5.

Hypothesis 5. There is no significant interaction between the type of administrator and the importance of the three change strategies in explaining the overall change perceived by administrators.

Table 4-6 is a summary of the analysis of hypothesis 5. An F-value of 2.87 with a probability level of .0234 was identified. The probability was greater than the .05 level of significance and the null hypothesis was rejected. The means and the frequencies used in this analysis are identified in table 4-7.

Table 4-6

Analysis of Variance for Overall Change as a Function of Administrative Type and Change Strategies

Source of Variance	DF	Type III SS	F-Value	Probability
Change Strategies	2	2.121	6.02	.0028
Position	2	0.518	1.47	.2318
Change Strategies X Position	4	2.024	2.87	.0234*

Note: R-square = .0949.

*significant at .05.

Table 4-7

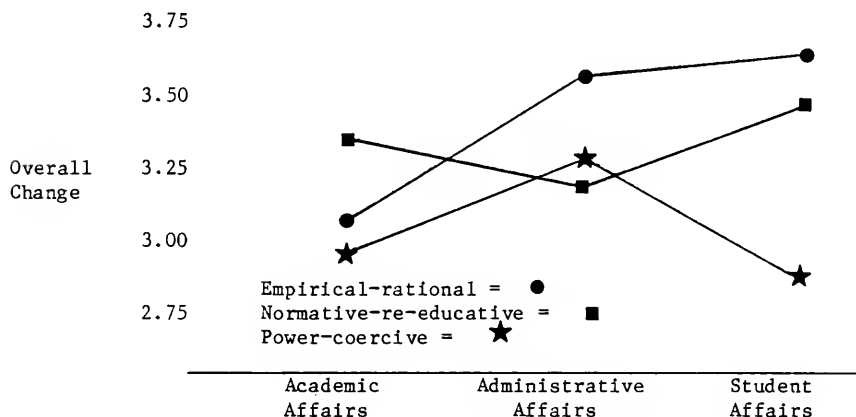
Means and Frequencies for the Analysis of Variance for Overall Change as a Function of Administrative Type and Change Strategy

Group	Change Strategy		
	ER	NR	PC
Academic Affairs			
Mean	3.122	3.350	2.933
Frequency	3	77	7
Administrative Affairs			
Mean	3.525	3.246	3.314
Frequency	4	80	7
Student Affairs			
Mean	3.529	3.420	2.793
Frequency	7	84	7

Note: ER = empirical-rational, NR = normative-re-educative, and PC = power-coercive.

There is an interaction between the type of administrator and the three change strategies in explaining overall perceptions of change. A significant interaction here would indicate that the three types of administrators perceived the three strategies with different importance.

The analysis did indicate differences. The differences are depicted in the graph in Figure 4-1. An analysis of the interaction indicates that the obtained R-square was .0949; therefore only about 9% of the variation in the model is explained by the two factors (strategies and position) and the interaction in perception of overall importance between the two.



Mean Scores for Overall Change by Predominant Change Strategies for Three Types of Administrators.

The analysis indicates that academic affairs officers who saw normative-re-educative change as a dominant strategy perceived more overall importance to change than did those who perceived the empirical-rational and power-coercive strategies as dominant. The normative-re-educative strategy was the prevalent strategy by approximately 89% of the academic affairs officers.

In contrast, the chief administrative affairs officers who saw empirical-rational strategies as the dominant change strategy also

noted more overall importance to change than did those who perceived the dominant strategies to be the other strategies. While the normative-re-educative strategy had the lowest mean score for this group of administrators, approximately 86% of the administrative affairs officers perceived it to be a prevalent strategy.

The empirical-rational change strategy was also the one student affairs officers perceived to be the most important in overall change. While these administrators saw it as most important, the normative-re-educative strategy means were close to the empirical-rational means and it was indicated to be the prevalent change strategy by approximately 86% of the chief student affairs officers.

The analysis indicated an interaction between administrative position and change strategy with regard to overall change. While the differences in the means exists, it is important to note the numbers of administrators indicating each strategy as a prevalent one. The normative-re-educative strategy was seen as prevalent by 241 administrators, the power-coercive strategy by 21 administrators, and the empirical-rational strategy was perceived by a total of 14 administrators as the dominant strategy. Therefore, the line for normative-re-educative strategy is the most stable line in Figure 4-1.

Overall dominant change strategies. To determine if there were differences regarding the importance of the three change strategies, a one-way ANOVA was done using dominant change as the dependent variable. This procedure was used to test hypothesis 6.

Hypothesis 6. There are no significant differences among the three change strategies regarding their perceived importance in causing change to occur.

The results of this analysis are shown in Table 4-8. The F-value was 6.25 with the probability level of .0022. Since the probability was less than the alpha level of .05 the null hypothesis was rejected. There is a difference among the three change strategies regarding their perceived importance in causing change to occur.

Table 4-8

Analysis of Variance for Overall Dominance of Change Strategies

Strategy	N	Mean	F-value	Probability	Significance
No Dominant Strategy	11	3.493			
Empirical-Rational	14	3.440			
Normative-Re-Educative	241	3.340			
Power-Coercive	21	3.013	6.25	.0022	significant

Note: Total N = 287, useable n = 276. Alpha = .05.

To determine where the significant differences existed, a follow-up multiple comparison procedure, the Bonferroni t test, was done. The results are shown in Table 4-9.

The analysis indicated that significant differences existed among the three strategies in terms of their perceived importance. Both the empirical-rational strategy and the normative-re-educative strategies

differed from the power-coercive strategy. There were no significant differences in the means of the empirical-rational and the normative-re-educative strategies. The normative-re-educative change strategy was identified by the great majority of respondents as the strategy most often used as a catalyst for change. It was followed by the power-coercive and the empirical-rational change strategies.

Table 4-9

Bonferroni t Test for Dominant Change Strategy

Strategies Compared	N	Means	Implications
No Dominant Strategy	11	3.493	
Empirical-Rational	14	3.440	non-significant
Normative-Re-educative			
Power-Coercive			significant
Normative-Re-educative	241	3.340	non-significant
Empirical-Rational			
Power-Coercive			significant
Power-Coercive	21	3.013	significant
Empirical-Rational			
Normative-Re-educative			significant

Note. Total N = 287, useable n = 276. Alpha = .05.

Dominant change for ten areas of change. To determine if there was a dominant change strategy used for the 10 different areas of change the ANOVA procedure was also used. The independent variables in this analysis were opportunities for adult students, alcohol use policies, counseling services, enrollment of disabled students, drug abuse, legal/liability concerns, living and learning programs, enrollment of minority students, opportunities for women students and

technology. If the respondent rated each of the three responses equally in importance for the specific area of change, that response was not used in the analysis of dominant change strategies. The responses of no dominant change strategies are noted for information. This was done to test hypothesis 7.

Hypothesis 7. There are no significant differences among the three change strategies regarding their perceived importance in causing change to occur in the 10 areas of change.

Table 4-10 is a summary of the number of responses for each area of change.

Table 4-10

Numbers Used in the Analysis of Variance for Ten Areas of Change

Area	Number of Responses			
	ND	ER	NR	PC
Adult Students	80	19	184	4
Alcohol Use Policies	137	62	63	23
Counseling Services	122	64	92	4
Disabled Students	67	10	76	132
Drug Abuse	60	14	199	8
Legal/Liability Concerns	114	7	51	114
Living and Learning Programs	107	61	105	9
Minority Students	84	5	49	148
Women Students	69	7	163	47
Technology	74	169	41	2

Note: ND = no dominant strategy, ER = empirical-rational, NR = normative-re-educative, PC = power-coercive change strategy.

Table 4-11 provides a summary of the 10 one-way ANOVAs. In 8 out of the 10 areas of change there were no differences among the three change strategies. In the areas of drug abuse and the use of technology, differences existed. In the area of drug abuse an F-value of 9.35 was obtained with a probability level of .0001. The analysis of the use of technology indicated a F-value of 4.58 with a probability level of .0113. Both of these levels are less than the .05 level of significance and the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 4-11

Analysis of Variance for Ten Areas of Change

Area	Mean scores				F-value	Probability
	ND	ER	NR	PC		
Adult Students	3.500	3.368	3.206	2.833	1.42	.2431
Alcohol Use Policies	3.886	3.392	3.291	3.580	1.76	.1757
Counseling Services	3.213	3.260	3.058	3.000	1.95	.1455
Disabled Students	3.632	3.566	3.500	3.377	1.47	.2330
Drug Abuse	3.400	3.393	2.782	3.500	9.25	.0001*
Legal/Liability Concerns	3.871	3.286	3.454	3.545	.98	.3786
Living and Learning Programs	3.137	3.022	2.975	3.222	.66	.5199
Minority Students	3.627	3.533	3.333	3.468	1.36	.2584
Women Students	3.754	3.190	3.373	3.390	.37	.6930
Technology	3.144	3.110	2.829	2.500	4.58	.0113*

Note: ND = no dominant strategy, ER = empirical-rational, NR = normative-re-educative, PC = power-coercive strategy.

*significant at the .05 level.

A multiple-comparisons follow-up procedure was used to determine where the significant differences existed in both drug abuse and the use of technology. This was done to determine which of the three change strategies was the dominant one for that area of change.

Table 4-12 is a summary of the follow-up analysis for drug abuse. As indicated in table 4-12, both the power-coercive and the empirical-rational strategies differ from the normative-re-educative strategy. The power-coercive change strategy is the strategy perceived to be the most important in causing change to occur in the area of drug abuse. A greater number of individuals rated the empirical-rational strategies as a prevalent one but its importance was rated lower than the other two categories.

Table 4-12

Bonferroni t Test for Drug Abuse

Strategies Compared	N	Means	Implications
No Dominant Strategy	60	3.400	
Empirical-Rational	14	3.393	
Normative-Re-educative			significant
Power-Coercive			non-significant
Normative-Re-educative	199	2.782	
Empirical-Rational			significant
Power-Coercive			significant
Power-Coercive	8	3.500	
Empirical-Rational			non-significant
Normative-Re-educative			significnat

Note: Alpha = .05.

Table 4-13 identifies a difference between the empirical-rational and the normative-re-educative change strategies in causing a change in the use of technology. For change in the area of technology, the empirical-rational strategy was rated as dominant in causing change to occur, followed by the empirical-rational and power-coercive strategies. In addition, the greatest number of administrators perceived this to be the prevalent change strategy.

Table 4-13

Bonferroni t Test for Technology

Strategies Compared	N	Mean	Implications
No Dominant Strategy	74	3.144	
Empirical-Rational	169	3.110	
Normative-Re-educative			significant
Power-Coercive			non-significant
Normative-Re-educative	41	2.829	
Empirical-Rational			significant
Power-Coercive			non-significant
Power-Coercive	2	2.500	
Empirical-Rational			non-significant
Normative-Re-educative			non-significant

Note: Alpha = .05.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the results of the study. The sample population, return responses, and the procedures used for the statistical analysis have been provided. In addition, the results of the analyses were described. A summary of the analyses is presented in the following general statements.

1. The importance of the change strategies was not statistically different. Chief academic, administrative, and student affairs officers, did not differ statistically in their perceived importance of change.
2. Regarding the use of the the empirical-rational change strategy, the chief student affairs officers perceived it to be of significantly more importance than did the other two types of administrators.
3. The chief student affairs officers did not differ from the chief academic and administrative officers in the importance of the normative-re-educative strategy.
4. There were no significant differences regarding the importance of the power-coercive change strategy. The academic affairs, administrative affairs, and the student affairs officers perceived it as equally important.
5. There were significant differences among the administrative types and the perceived importance of the change strategies in overall change. The chief student affairs officers perceived empirical-rational as the most important in overall change. Approximately 86% of the student affairs officers perceived normative-re-educative as the prevalent strategy but rated it lower in importance than the empirical-rational strategy.
6. The dominant strategies by importance for the 10 areas of change were empirical-rational and normative-re-educative. While the empirical-rational strategy had the highest rating of importance it also had the lowest number of administrators selecting it as a

dominant strategy. The normative-re-educative strategy had the highest number of administrators selecting it as a dominant strategy.

7. There were two issues within the 10 areas of recent change where significant differences were indicated regarding a dominant strategy. The power-coercive and the empirical-rational strategies were rated significantly higher than the normative-re-educative strategy in the area of drug abuse. The normative-re-educative, while lower in importance, had the highest number of administrators perceiving it as a dominant strategy. In the area of technology, the empirical-rational strategy was rated significantly higher than the normative-re-educative strategy and also had the highest number of administrators indicating it as a dominant strategy.

Chapter IV has presented specific information regarding the analysis of the data. Chapter V presents a summary of the study, findings, conclusions, and recommendations and implications for future research.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter consists of five sections. The first section is an overview of the development and design of the study. In the second section a summary of the major findings is presented. The third section identifies some conclusions and the fourth provides a discussion of the conclusions of the study. The fifth section includes some possible implications for future research.

Development of the Study

Purpose

The main purpose of this study was to determine if the change strategies of Chin and Benne (1976) were seen by three types of administrators at four-year public institutions of higher education as being equally important as processes involved in causing change to occur. The three types of administrators surveyed for the study were the chief academic, administrative, and student affairs officers. The three change strategies used in the study theorized by Chin and Benne (1976) are (a) empirical-rational, (b) normative-re-educative, and (c) power-coercive categories of change. The types of strategies were compared in terms of their perceived importance to determine if differences existed in general and by type of administrator. In addition, the perceived importance of the change strategies in the 10 areas of change were examined, as was the perceived dominance of a strategy in the 10 areas of change.

Justification for the Study

Student affairs as a profession has experienced significant change during the past 20 years. A study by Brodzinski (1980) reported the amount of responsibility that chief student affairs officers identified for 20 functional areas of responsibility. The results were compared to a 1962-63 study (Ayers et al., 1966). In the Brodzinski study there was an increase of 30% in three areas and a 20% in three additional areas. Only one decrease was noted and a total of 55 different functional areas were included in the "other" category in the Brodzinski study. These increased responsibilities and changes occurred at a time when resources were limited and accountability was stressed.

It is important that student affairs professionals are aware of these changes. In addition, an understanding of planned change is necessary (American College Personnel Association, 1983; Miller & Prince, 1977). According to Blaesser and Crookston (1983)

Changes in college student personnel programs are typically brought about in diverse ways--through administrative fiat, staff turnovers, financial ups and downs, recommendation from faculty and student committees, marshalling of data from local, regional, and national research, or pressure groups from student, faculty, administration, alumni, and the surrounding community. (p. 193)

Change is predicted to continue in the area of student affairs (Harvey, 1983). To continue to meet the increasing demands of constant change and to maintain institutional support, student affairs professionals must become familiar with how change occurs.

This study examined how change is perceived to occur by chief student affairs officers and by two other types of administrators that

are typically involved with institutional change, the chief academic and administrative officers. The results of the study may provide information for student affairs professionals about how change occurs within the profession and within other parts of institutions of higher education. This information may assist in planning for the future and working with other key administrators within institutions.

Conceptual Framework

The change strategies of Chin and Benne (1976) formed the theoretical basis for this study. Their change strategies combine various approaches to change into three main groups, each of which can be found in higher education. Their three categories of change are (a) empirical-rational, (b) normative-re-educative, and (c) power-coercive. The following provides a summary of these strategies.

The empirical-rational strategy assumes that people are rational and they will pursue their rational self-interest when it is known to them. In this process, a person or organization proposes a change that will be of benefit to and consistent with the self-interest of the individual or group on which the change will have an impact. It is assumed that change will be accepted if it is shown to be justified and of benefit because the individual or organization is assumed to be rational and able to be motivated by self-interest.

The normative-re-educative change strategies include rationality and intelligence. However, the motivation for the change is the support by individuals of the sociocultural norms which are the values and attitudes that affect commitment. Change involves an alteration of the orientation to current normative patterns and replacing them

with new orientations. The change in commitment involves change in "attitudes, values, skills, and significant relationships, not just in knowledge, information, or intellectual rationales for action and practice" (Chin & Benne, 1976, p. 23). Processes such as conflict management, problem-solving groups, and management by objectives are examples of this strategy.

Power-coercive change strategies are based on the use of power as a source of change. The source of power can be legitimate, authoritative, and/or coercive. Sources of motivation for change therefore can include such things as positional, economic, legal, political, moral, and administrative power. In this process, those with more power use it to obtain the desired outcome from those with less power. In education, this process of change can be found in sources such as legislative mandates, judicial decisions, and administrative orders (Blaesser, 1978).

Review of the Literature

The purpose of the review of the literature was to provide background information on three areas. The three areas were Chin and Bennes' theory of change, change in student affairs, and the 10 areas of recent change in student affairs. Chin and Benne's theory was described in terms of their general beliefs regarding planned change and by a description of the three categories of change. Change in student affairs was described through a summary of the literature that discussed catalysts and the management of change in the profession. A history of each of the 10 areas of recent change was also included.

Methodology

The research population for this study included the chief academic, administrative, and student affairs officers at public four-year colleges and universities. From an alphabetical list of 486 institutions, three groups were selected by assigning a number one, two, or three to each institution. Each of the three groups contained 162 administrators from different institutions and the three groups were the academic, administrative, and student affairs officers.

An instrument "A Study of Planned Change in Higher Education" was constructed by the researcher. The instrument contained two sections. One section included demographic data and the second section contained 10 statements about recent change in student affairs. Following each of the change statements there were three responses, each one reflecting one of the change strategies of Chin and Benne. The responses were validated by experts in planned change as reflecting the three change strategies. The respondents were asked to rate each of the responses in terms of its perceived importance in causing change to occur. The instrument was sent to 486 administrators and the useable return rate was 287 (59%) responses.

The statistical analysis was done using the Statistical Analysis System. The procedures used were the General Linear Models Procedure for one-way and two-way analysis of variance. The Bonferroni t test for identifying specific differences was used to do post hoc comparisons between all groups when a significant difference existed.

Summary of Major Findings

There were seven null hypotheses that were tested and of this total, four were rejected. The following statements provide a summary of the findings.

1. The chief academic, administrative, and student affairs officers did not differ significantly in their perceptions of the importance of the change strategies. The level of importance of change was not related to administrative type.

2. The empirical-rational category of change was perceived by chief student affairs officers as significantly more important than by academic or administrative officers.

3. There were no significant differences in the perceived importance of the normative-re-educative strategy by the three types of administrators.

4. The student affairs officers did not differ significantly from the academic and administrative officers in their perception of the importance of the power-coercive change strategy.

5. The chief student affairs officers perceived empirical-rational as the dominant change strategy by importance. In terms of frequencies, about 86% of the student affairs officers perceived normative-re-educative as the dominant strategy.

6. The empirical-rational and the normative-re-educative strategies were perceived as significantly more important than the power-coercive strategy as a dominant strategy. By frequency, the normative-re-educative strategy was identified as the prevalent strategy by approximately 87% the administrators.

7. There were differences in the 10 areas of recent change and the perceptions of a dominant strategy used for each area. The two areas where significant differences existed were drug abuse and the increased use of technology. By mean score, the power-coercive and the empirical-rational strategies were rated significantly higher in the area of drug abuse. By frequency, more administrators perceived the normative-re-educative strategy as the prevalent strategy. In the area of the increased use of technology, the empirical-rational strategy differed from the other two categories and was perceived to be the most important and also was viewed as the prevalent strategy by the highest number of administrators

Conclusions

The following conclusions are presented as a result of this research.

1. The instrument used for this study discriminates for statistical purposes differences among administrators and the perceived use of the three categories of change strategies.
2. The results of the study provide support for the theory of Chin and Benne. The three strategies are perceived to cause change to occur in the profession of student affairs.
3. While all three strategies were perceived to cause change, there were differences among the strategies in terms of importance and frequency. The results indicate that the strategies are not mutually exclusive and an interaction among them is evident in higher education.
4. The results of the study indicate that this approach to the study of change in higher education can provide useful insights about

the change process. For example, chief academic, administrative, and student affairs officers are more similar than different in their perceptions regarding change.

5. As evidenced by this study, change is a complex process. It involves various catalysts and diverse approaches to manage change. The process varies, depending on the type of administrator and the object of the change.

6. Administrators in higher education have both similar and different concepts of the importance and the use of strategies for planned change. This information is valuable to the chief academic, administrative, and student affairs officers for planning for future change.

Implications

This study identified differences among the three types of administrators and their perceptions of the use of the change strategies theorized by Chin and Benne. There was also evidence that the three types of administrators viewed change as occurring within the three categories of change strategies.

The chief student affairs officers tend to perceive the empirical-rational strategy as more important, in general, than do the academic and administrative officers. This increased importance may be due to the recent significant change in the 10 areas within the profession of student affairs. The magnitude of the change has created increased attention to the need to understand and manage change. The main elements of the literature regarding change within

student affairs have included the need for increased information. These needs may have influenced the student affairs officers to place more importance on this strategy.

There were no differences among the three types of administrators and the perceived overall importance of the use of the normative-re-educative and the use of the power-coercive change strategy. However, the mean scores of importance for the normative-re-educative strategy were rated above important and for the power-coercive strategy they were all rated below the important level. Perhaps this indicates that these three types of administrators are in general consensus regarding the greater importance of the change processes that include the individuals affected by the change in the change process. Processes such as conflict management, problem-solving groups, and management by objectives are perceived as more important than those that include such tactics as the use of mandates and orders, civil disobedience, and the use of political institutions.

In terms of a dominant strategy, those in student affairs and administrative affairs who saw the empirical-rational as the dominant strategy perceived more importance for that strategy than did those who viewed the other two strategies as dominant. For academic affairs officers this was true for those who perceived the normative-re-educative change strategy as the dominant category. While the means for importance varied among the administrators, the highest percentage of all administrators (approximately 87%) indicated that normative-re-educative was the prevalent strategy. Those who

perceive the dissemination of knowledge and the communication of ideas as important felt strongly about the importance of the process. The majority of administrators perceived the use of such things as creativity, problem-solving, and conflict-management to be used more often. One might speculate that the normative-re-educative strategy is used more often by administrators even though the communication of ideas and information is perceived as more important.

This speculation may also explain the fact that there was no significant difference by importance by the various administrators for the use of the empirical-rational and the normative-re-educative strategies and they were, again, perceived as significantly more important than the power-coercive strategy as dominant strategies. By frequency, most administrators viewed the normative-re-educative as the prevalent strategy.

In the 10 areas of recent change, two areas were significantly different from the others in the use of dominant strategy. For drug abuse, the use of information and power related activities were higher in importance than the strategies involving processes such as problem-solving, group interaction and conflict management. Perhaps the importance of the dissemination of information regarding drug abuse and the legal and moral implications of the issue are part of the reasons for this rating. In addition, of the 10 areas of recent change, the area of drug abuse had the highest number of administrators viewing the normative-re-educative strategy as dominant. One can speculate that the need to deal with this change involves interaction among individuals and attention to the values,

habits, and attitudes of those involved with the change. While the normative-re-educative strategy is not viewed as the most important strategy, it is used often in this area.

In the area of technology the empirical-rational change strategy was the highest by ratings and frequency of administrators viewing it as a dominant strategy. One might speculate that since this area is concerned with facts, procedures, and training, change in the increase in technology may be mainly a result of the empirical-rational change strategy.

While there were no other statistically significant differences in terms of importance for the other eight areas of change, some interesting comparisons can be made by examining the frequencies of the use of the change strategies. For example, in viewing the increase in enrollment of women, minority, and disabled students, different strategies were perceived as prevalent in causing change to occur. The power-coercive strategy was prevalent for the enrollment of disabled and minority students while the normative-re-educative strategy was seen as the prevalent strategy in the increase in the enrollment of women students. One might speculate that while similar legislation was implemented for these groups of students, the perceptions of the process used to implement the legislation were different.

In summary, the results of this study indicate support for the theory of Chin and Benne. There is evidence to suggest that the three strategies are used in the change process in higher education and in the student affairs profession. As Chin and Benne indicate, the

strategies are not mutually exclusive and more than one can be employed to create change. The results of this study indicate the use of all strategies with varying degrees of importance and frequency.

Implications for Future Research

This study supports the need for future research in several areas. The study was limited to three types of administrators at public four-year colleges and universities and to the three categories of change strategies. The study was also designed to determine if differences existed but not how or why they existed. The following represent suggestions for future research related to this study:

1. This study was limited to postsecondary public four-year institutions. Future research could include other institutions such as private institutions and community colleges. In addition, elements such as enrollment and region of the country could be studied for their possible relationship to the change process.
2. The study was limited to three types of administrators at different institutions. A study of administrators within the same institution could be informative. The perceptions of other types of administrators would also add to the knowledge of institutional change.
3. Additional information regarding the administrators could be analyzed to determine relationship to change. These could include such factors as sex, age, and years of employment at the institution.
4. Since each of the strategies includes a number of approaches to change, a study could be conducted to identify what specific activities are used within each of the change strategies.

5. A study could be conducted to identify the dominant strategy by administrative type for the areas of change. This could describe differences by administrative type for the perceived dominance of any of the strategies by individual areas.

6. This study was limited to 10 areas of change that have occurred in student affairs within the past 20 years. An additional study could be done that included other areas of change or ones that occurred within a different time span.

APPENDIX A
COVER LETTER FOR SURVEY REGARDING AREAS OF CHANGE

October 29, 1985

Dear :

I am a graduate student in the College of Education at the University of Florida and I am currently designing a dissertation proposal. On the recommendation of my advisor, Art Sandeen, I am writing to ask for your assistance in providing some information.

The dissertation is designed to test Benne and Chins' planned change theory. A major part of the study involves significant changes that have occurred in higher education within the past 20 years and have had an impact on the area of student affairs. Your assistance in requested to help ensure that appropriate areas of change are included in the study.

The enclosed form lists 22 areas of recent change in student affairs. Please rank these areas in terms of their importance to student affairs. If any area that you believe is important is not included, please identify it by noting it under "other". The ranking process should only require about five minutes.

A self-addressed, stamped, return envelope is included for the return of the information. If possible, please return the form by November 8, 1985.

Your assistance is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Mary Skorheim

Enclosure

APPENDIX B
SURVEY FORM FOR IDENTIFYING AREAS OF CHANGE

Areas of Change

Please rank from 1-22 (1=most, 22=least) the following areas of change in terms of their importance or significance to student affairs. If there are areas that you believe should be included, please list them under "other". Please limit the areas to those that have occurred within the past 20 years.

- | | |
|------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|
| ____ 1. Enrollment of disabled students | ____ 12. Campus security |
| ____ 2. No-need based scholarships | ____ 13. Use of technology |
| ____ 3. Counseling services | ____ 14. Student membership on governing boards |
| ____ 4. Student control of activity and service fees | ____ 15. Hazing policies |
| ____ 5. Statewide student associations | ____ 16. Enrollment of minority students |
| ____ 6. Opportunities for foreign students | ____ 17. Living and learning programs |
| ____ 7. Alcohol use policies | ____ 18. Campus child care |
| ____ 8. Sexual harassment policies | ____ 19. Opportunities for women students |
| ____ 9. Student legal services | ____ 20. Drug abuse |
| ____ 10. Programs for gay students | ____ 21. Legal/liability concerns |
| ____ 11. Opportunities for adult students | ____ 22. Health care and wellness programs |

Other _____

Comments _____

Name of institution _____

Please return to:

Mary Skorheim
124 Tigert Hall
University of Florida
Gainesville, Florida 32601

APPENDIX C
COVER LETTER TO JUDGES

Thank you for your willingness to assist in the validation of the responses for the instrument being designed for use in a study based on the theoretical framework of Chin and Benne. The purpose of the study is to determine the perceptions of chief academic, administrative, and student affairs officers of strategies employed in 10 areas of change related to student affairs within the past 20 years.

The validation of the responses is an important part of the development of the survey. Your involvement will help insure that the responses accurately reflect the three change strategies of Chin and Benne. Enclosed are a summary of the taxonomy of Chin and Benne and nine change strategy responses. The following instructions should be followed to validate the responses:

1. Read the summary of Chin and Benne's taxonomy of planned change.
2. Read the sample change strategy responses.
3. Indicate the change strategy that you believe is most accurately described by the response. Use the following key for the responses: E= empirical-rational, N= normative-re-educative, and P= power-coercive.
4. Judge each response independently and do not use the process of elimination to determine the change strategy represented.
5. Note comments and suggestions in the space provided.

6. The completed form should be returned in the enclosed, self-addressed envelope.

If you have any questions regarding this request please feel free to contact me at 392-1261 (work) or 373-2006 (home). Your time and assistance is greatly appreciated.

APPENDIX D

SUMMARY OF CHIN AND BENNE'S TAXONOMY OF CHANGE

Chin and Benne (1976) described planned change as those activities in which at least one of the individuals in the process uses obvious, specific, and designed attempts to produce change. Chin and Benne grouped into three categories the strategies commonly used for change. While there are similarities among the strategies, the differences are significant. The strategies are not mutually exclusive and elements of one may be found in another. Independently they each represent a major type of change strategy that can be found in higher education. The three categories for change strategies are (a) empirical-rational, (b) normative-re-educative, and (c) power-coercive. The following provides a summary of these strategies.

The empirical-rational strategy assumes that people are rational and they will pursue their rational self-interest when it is known to them. In this process, a person or organization proposes a change that will be of benefit to and consistent with the self-interest of the individual or group on which the change will have an impact. It is assumed that change will be accepted if it is shown to be justified and of benefit because the individual or organization is assumed to be rational and able to be motivated by self-interest.

The normative-re-educative change strategies include rationality and intelligence. However, the motivation for the change is the support by individuals of the sociocultural norms which are the values

and attitudes that affect commitments. Change involves an alteration of the orientation to current normative patterns and replaces them with new orientations. The change in commitment involves change in "attitudes, values, skills, and significant relationships, not just changes in knowledge, information, or intellectual rationales for action and practice" (Chin & Benne, 1976, p. 23). Processes such as conflict management, problem solving groups, and management by objectives are often used in student affairs.

Power-coercive change strategies are based on the use of power as a source of change. The source of power can be legitimate, authoritative and/or coercive. Sources of motivation for change therefore can include such things as positional, economic, legal, political, moral, and administrative power. In this process, those with more power use it to obtain the desired outcome from those with less power. In education, this process of change can be found in sources such as legislative mandates, judicial decisions, and administrative orders (Blaesser, 1978).

APPENDIX E
INSTRUCTIONS TO JUDGES FOR VALIDATION OF RESPONSES

Sample Change Strategy Responses

Please read the following responses which are designed to reflect the change strategies of Chin and Benne. Indicate the change strategy that you believe is most accurately described by the statement. Each response should be judged independently and the process of elimination should not be used to determine the change strategy represented. Any comments and/or suggestions are encouraged and should be noted in the space provided. Use the following key for responses:

E= Empirical-rational N= Normative-re-educative P= Power-coercive

- 1. The change was based on research, increased knowledge and information, and the dissemination of the information.
- 2. Changes in the commitments and/or changes in values, habits, and attitudes were the basis for change.
- 3. The use of political, economic or moral sanctions, civil disobedience, and/or judicial or legislative decisions were the basis for change.
- 4. Changes in values, habits, attitudes and/or commitments were the basis for change.
- 5. The change occurred as a result of activities such as legislative or judicial decisions, civil disobedience, and/or political, moral or economic sanctions.
- 6. The use of research, an increase in information and knowledge, and the communication of the information were the basis for this change.
- 7. The use of moral, political or economic sanctions, legislative or judicial decisions and/or civil disobedience were the basis for this change.
- 8. The communication of increased information and knowledge and/or the use of research were the basis for this change.
- 9. The change occurred as a result of changes in values, attitudes, habits, and/or commitments.

Comments and/or
suggestions _____

APPENDIX F
RESPONSES OF CHANGE EXPERTS TO CHANGE STRATEGY VALIDATION

Table F-1

Summary of Validation of Change Strategy Responses

Response Number	Skorheim	Judges			
		A	B	C	D
1	ER	ER	ER	ER	ER
2	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR
3	PC	PC	PC	PC	PC
4	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR
5	PC	PC	PC	PC	PC
6	ER	ER	ER	ER	ER
7	PC	PC	PC	PC	PC
8	ER	ER	ER	ER	ER
9	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR

Note: ER = Empirical-rational, NR = Normative-re-educative, PC = Power-coercive.

APPENDIX G
SURVEY INSTRUMENT

A STUDY OF PLANNED CHANGE STRATEGIES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

The purpose of this study is to determine how chief academic, administrative, and student affairs officers perceive change to have occurred in 10 areas of recent change in higher education.

It is important that you respond to all items. All responses should be made by circling the response that you believe is the most appropriate. Individual responses will be kept confidential.

SECTION I. DESCRIPTIVE DATA

(Answer items 1 through 5 by circling the letter of the appropriate response.)

- | | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. <u>Length of time employed at your institution</u>
a. less than five years
b. 5-10 years
c. 11-15 years
d. more than 15 years | 4. <u>Present age</u>
a. 25-35 years
b. 36-45 years
c. 46-55 years
d. over 55 years |
| 2. <u>Length of time employed in your current position</u>
a. less than five years
b. 5-10 years
c. 11-15 years
d. more than 15 years | 5. <u>Sex</u>
a. female
b. male |
| 3. <u>Length of time professionally employed in your area of expertise</u>
a. less than five years
b. 5-10 years
c. 11-15 years
d. more than 15 years | |

SECTION II. RECENT AREAS OF CHANGE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Your responses to this part of the survey should be based on your perception of which statement best describes the cause of the change described. For each statement, please rate the three responses in terms of their importance in causing the identified change by circling the number that you believe most accurately reflects the importance of that response. Please note that several activities are included in each statement; however, only one needs to be relevant to you in order to rate that response. Please rate each response. The following numbers represent the ratings used:

1= not important	2= of little importance	3= important	4= somewhat important	5= very important
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1. Between 1965 and 1985 the enrollment of students with disabilities increased significantly at public colleges and universities. In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following responses in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.

1 2 3 4 5 a. The change was based on research, increased knowledge and information, and the dissemination of the information.

1 2 3 4 5 b. Changes in commitments and/or changes in values, habits, and attitudes were the basis for change.

1 2 3 4 5 c. The use of political, economic, or moral sanctions, civil disobedience, and/or judicial or legislative decisions were the basis for the change.

2. The percentage of minority students increased from 9.5% to 17% of total college and university enrollment between 1968 and 1982. In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following responses in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.

1 2 3 4 5 a. Changes in values, habits, attitudes and/or commitments were the basis for change.

- 1 2 3 4 5 b. The change occurred as a result of activities such as legislative or judicial decisions, civil disobedience, and/or political, moral, or economic sanctions.
- 1 2 3 4 5 c. The use of research, an increase in information and knowledge, and the communication of the information were the basis for this change.
3. In 1960 women represented almost 35% of the enrollment at colleges and universities and the figure is now 52.1%. In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following responses in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.
- 1 2 3 4 5 a. The use of moral, political, or economic sanctions, legislative or judicial decisions and/or civil disobedience were the basis for this change.
- 1 2 3 4 5 b. The communication of increased information and knowledge and/or the use of research were the basis for this change.
- 1 2 3 4 5 c. The change occurred as a result of changes in values, attitudes, habits, and/or commitments.
4. The living and learning concept in residence halls, which evolved during the past 20 years, is a program which provides for a physical environment as well as the social and academic development of students. In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following responses in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.
- 1 2 3 4 5 a. The change was based on research, increased knowledge and information, and the dissemination of the information.
- 1 2 3 4 5 b. Changes in commitments and/or changes in values, habits, and attitudes were the basis for change.
- 1 2 3 4 5 c. The use of political, economic, or moral sanctions, civil disobedience, and/or judicial or legislative decisions were the basis for the change.
5. The use of technology has expanded significantly in the past 20 years. It is found in direct access services for students such as 24 hour telephone access to services and programs in career and personal counseling and study skills. It is also prevalent as a management tool and is used in areas such as admissions, financial aid, and academic advisement. In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following responses in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.

- 1 2 3 4 5 a. Changes in values, habits, attitudes, and/or commitments were the basis for this change.
- 1 2 3 4 5 b. The change occurred as a result of activities such as legislative or judicial decisions, civil disobedience, and/or political, moral, or economic sanctions.
- 1 2 3 4 5 c. The use of research, an increase in information and knowledge, and the communication of the information were the basis for this change.

6. Institutions of higher education are increasingly confronted with legal/liability issues. These concerns can be found in areas such as alcohol use, hazing, campus safety, student discipline, and student publications. In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following responses in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.

- 1 2 3 4 5 a. The use of moral, political, or economic sanctions, legislative or judicial decisions and/or civil disobedience were the basis for this change.
- 1 2 3 4 5 b. The communication of increased information and knowledge and/or the use of research were the basis for this change.
- 1 2 3 4 5 c. The change occurred as a result of changes in values, attitudes, habits, and/or commitments.

7. Prior to the 1960s a major concern regarding substance abuse on campuses was the consumption of alcohol. During the 1960s the use of hallucinogens, marijuana, and other drugs such as heroin, amphetamines and barbiturates occurred. The abuse of these drugs, along with the use of cocaine and the use of multiple drugs by students, has appeared on college and university campuses. In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following responses in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.

- 1 2 3 4 5 a. The change was based on research, increased knowledge and information, and the dissemination of the information.
- 1 2 3 4 5 b. Changes in commitments and/or changes in values, habits, and attitudes were the basis for change.
- 1 2 3 4 5 c. The use of political, economic, or moral sanctions, civil disobedience, and/or judicial or legislative decisions were the basis for the change.

8. Prior to the 1970s the primary focus of counseling centers was on the personal, vocational, and advisement of students on a one-to-one basis. The centers have expanded their role and now also include such things as educational consultation, university committee involvement, training, services to special populations of students, and outreach. In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following responses in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.

- 1 2 3 4 5 a. Changes in values, habits, attitudes, and/or commitments were the basis for this change.
- 1 2 3 4 5 b. The change occurred as a result of activities such as legislative or judicial decisions, civil disobedience, and/or political, moral, or economic sanctions.
- 1 2 3 4 5 c. The use of research, an increase in information and knowledge, and the communication of the information were the basis for this change.

9. In 1970, older students (those over 24 years of age) represented 22% of the college enrollment. By 1982 this figure increased to 35.6% of college enrollments. In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following responses in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.

- 1 2 3 4 5 a. The use of moral, political, or economic sanctions, legislative or judicial decisions, and/or civil disobedience were the basis for this change.
- 1 2 3 4 5 b. The communication of increased information and knowledge and/or the use of research were the basis for this change.
- 1 2 3 4 5 c. The change occurred as a result of changes in values, attitudes, habits, and/or commitments.

10. Colleges and universities have increased the number of educational programs and policies regarding the use of alcohol. Studies indicate that the percentage of responding institutions having programs in alcohol education increased from 69% in 1978 to 88% in 1985. In thinking about this change, please rate each of the following responses in terms of their importance in causing this change to occur.

- 1 2 3 4 5 a. The change was based on research, increased knowledge and information, and the dissemination of the information.
- 1 2 3 4 5 b. Changes in commitments and/or changes in values, habits, and attitudes were the basis for change.

- 1 2 3 4 5 c. The use of political, economic, or moral sanctions, civil disobedience, and/or judicial or legislative decisions were the basis for the change.

Thank you for your willingness to participate in this study. If you would like a summary of the results of the survey please indicate below:

_____yes_____no _____Name
_____Address

Code Number_____

Reminder: To return the survey, please staple and mail. The survey is self-addressed and stamped. Please return by Friday, June 6, 1986.

(STAPLE HERE)

FIRST CLASS MAIL

Mary Skorheim
124 Tigert Hall
University of Florida
Gainesville, Fl 32611

CONFIDENTIAL

APPENDIX H
COVER LETTER FOR RESEARCH INSTRUMENT FOR FIRST MAILING

May 9, 1986

Dear Colleague:

Ms. Mary Skorheim is a research assistant and a graduate student in the Institute of Higher Education at the University of Florida. She is conducting a study, under the sponsorship of the Institute, of planned change strategies used in higher education.

You are invited to participate in this study. A major part of the study involves significant changes that have occurred in higher education within the past 20 years and have had an impact on the areas of academic, administrative, and student affairs. Your participation in this study is very important as the study may be helpful in providing an understanding of how change is perceived to occur by various administrators. This information can be of assistance in planning for future changes.

In a recently conducted pilot study the average completion time of the survey instrument was between 10-15 minutes. Please return the completed, self-addressed, stamped survey to Mary Skorheim by Friday, May 23, 1986. Your individual responses will be kept confidential and the code number on the survey is being used solely to identify returned surveys.

We appreciate your participation and cooperation and will provide you with a summary of the results of the study if you so indicate on the survey.

Cordially yours,

James L. Wattenbarger, Director
Institute of Higher Education

Mary Skorheim, Research Assistant
Institute of Higher Education

APPENDIX I
COVER LETTER FOR RESEARCH INSTRUMENT FOR SECOND MAILING

May 23, 1986

Dear Colleague:

Recently a survey was mailed to selected administrators at various institutions of higher education. The response to this study, sponsored by the Institute of Higher Education, has been positive.

According to our information, we have not yet received your survey. It is, however, possible that it is currently en route to us. If so, please disregard this letter.

If you have not had the time to respond to this survey you are encouraged to complete this copy. Your involvement will help us insure a representative perception of how change occurs in higher education. It would be helpful if you could return the completed, self-addressed, stamped survey to Mary Skorheim by Friday, June 6, 1986. Your individual responses will be kept confidential and the code number on the survey is being used solely to identify returned surveys.

We appreciate your cooperation and participation in this study.

Cordially yours,

James Wattenbarger, Director
Institute of Higher Education

Mary Skorheim, Research Assistant
Institute of Higher Education

APPENDIX J
TABLES OF GENERAL DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Table J-1

Employment Profile of Respondents

Years	Current Institution		Current Position		Area of Expertise	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Less than 5	69	24.9	140	50.7	15	5.5
5-10	50	18.1	84	30.04	31	11.3
11-15	47	17.0	25	9.1	51	18.3
More than 15	111	40.1	27	9.8	176	64.7
Unuseable responses	10		11			12

Table J-2

Type of Institution

	Land-Grant		Predominantly Black	
	N	%	N	%
Yes	46	16	20	7
No	241	84	267	93%

Table J-3

Additional Demographic Information

	N	%
<u>Region of the Country</u>		
New England	19	6.6
Midwest	44	15.3
Southeast	91	31.7
Great Lakes	41	14.3
Plains	25	8.7
Southwest	28	9.8
Rocky Mountains	12	4.2
Far West	27	9.4
<u>Enrollment</u>		
Less than 1,000	5	1.7
1,000 to 4,999	93	32.4
5,000 to 9,999	76	26.5
10,000 or more	113	39.4
<u>Age</u>		
25-35 years	8	2.9
36-45 years	81	29.3
46-55 years	121	43.8
over 55 years	66	23.9
unuseable responses	11	

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Mary Skorheim was born on May 26, 1949 in Minot, North Dakota, and was educated in the public schools in Minot. She graduated from Minot High School in 1967.

Ms. Skorheim attended Minot State College during her freshman year in college. She transferred to the University of North Dakota in 1968 and graduated with a Bachelor of Arts degree in French in 1971. In 1973 she received her Master of Arts degree in counseling and guidance from the University of North Dakota.

Following graduation, Ms. Skorheim moved to Muncie, Indiana, to accept a position at Ball State University. She was employed as a residence hall director for the Division of Housing until 1975. At that time she accepted a position as Assistant Dean for Student Services at the University of Wisconsin-Oshkosh and worked with fraternities and sororities, child care, disabled students, and the women's center. During her employment there she also served as the acting Assistant to the President/Director of Affirmative Action for one year. She worked at the University of Wisconsin-Oshkosh from 1975 to 1979.

Ms. Skorheim has held the position of Assistant Dean for Student Services at the University of Florida in Gainesville, Florida since 1979. She began her doctoral work as a part-time student in the fall of 1981.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



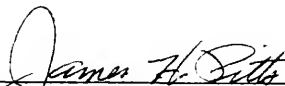
James L. Wattenbarger, Chairman
Professor of Educational Leadership

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



C. Arthur Sandeen, Cochairman
Professor of Educational Leadership

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